

PERFORMANCE ESTIMATE OF LARGE-SCALE 10N ENGINES FOR SEI-TYPE MISSIONS USING C60 PROPELLANT

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A performance estimate of large scale ion engines intended for use on missions of the type envisioned by the Space Exploration Initiative (SEI) has been conducted. C₆₀, xenon, krypton and argon propellants were compared. Thruster diameters between 50 cm and 100 cm were examined analytically. Engine performance parameters, such as thrust, efficiency, specific mass, thruster input power, thrust-to-power ratio and discharge current have been calculated with specific impulse the independent variable. Thrust-to-power ratios for C₆₀ propellant were predicted to be as more than twice the values obtainable for xenon. Thrust values up to 4 N are predicted for a 1-m engine at 80 kW for C₆₀ and 200 kW for xenon. Significantly higher power levels are required for the other inert gases. For a maximum span-to-gap ratio of 500, a maximum accelerating voltage of 6 kV and a maximum net-to-total voltage ratio of 0.9, C₆₀ thrusters are theoretically able to obtain specific impulse values up to 3000 sec, while xenon, krypton and argon maybe able to deliver 7500 sec, 9500 sec and 12,000 sec respectively.

NOMENCLATURE

A_B	= Beam Area
D_g	= Grid Diameter
d_s	= Screen Grid Hole Diameter
e	= Unit Electric Charge (1.602×10^{-16} As)
E_m	= Maximum Electric Field Strength
f_B	= Beam Flatness Parameter
g	= Gravitational Acceleration
I_B	= Beam Current
I_D	= Discharge Current
I_{sp}	= Specific Impulse
j	= Average Current density
j_{max}	= Maximum Current Density
l_c	= Effective Acceleration Length
l_g	= Grid Spacing
\dot{m}	= Propellant Flow Rate
m_i	= Ion Mass
M_W	= Molar Weight
N_{PH}	= Normalized Pervance Parameter
P_I	= Thruster Input Power
P_{Heat}	= Heater Power
P_S	= Sublimation Power
R	= Net-to-Total Voltage Ratio
$[s/g]$	= Span-to-Gap Ratio

T	= Thrust
$[T/P]$	= Thrust-to-Power Ratio
V_B	= Beam Voltage
V_{NC}	= Neutralizer Coupling Voltage
V_T	= Total Accelerating Voltage
α	= Specific Mass
δ	= Thrust Divergence Loss Factor
ΔH_S	= Heat of Sublimation
η_I	= Electric Efficiency
η_{Heat}	= Heater Efficiency
η_T	= Thruster Efficiency
Φ_S	= Open Area Fraction

INTRODUCTION

Motivation for this Study:

Missions of human exploration to the moon and Mars have always been of keen interest. Missions of this kind, until the very recent past, have been studied under the so called "Space Exploration Initiative" ("SEI"). Large projected costs, however, have raised questions whether development efforts required for such missions to take place early in the next century can be accomplished within the current budgetary situation of the major industrial nations. One important cost factor for all space missions, and

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in particular large-scale SBL-type missions, arc launch costs from Earth's surface into Low Earth Orbit (LEO). These costs arc largely determined by the mass to be inserted into LEO. Studies have shown that in particular for large scale robotic, and human Mars missions requiring the delivery of payloads on the order of 100 metric tons (MT) to Mars, initial masses in LEO (IMLEO) can be enormous if conventional, chemical (H/OX) systems arc being used for the LEO to Mars transfer¹⁻⁴. For a 100 MT payload, IMLEO's of over 400 MT can be expected for an H/OX system², increasing to roughly 1500 MT if a payload of about 400 MT (delivery only) were to be transported to our neighbor planet. High IMLEO's also have to be expected for a chemical vehicle transporting a significantly lower payload mass if part of the payload is to be returned to Earth orbit; such a scenario would be typical for a manned mission. For a 137 MT Mars-bound payload and a 61 MT Earth-bound payload, Braun and Biersch³ determined IMLEO masses between 1000 and up to 5000 MT (depending on the launch date) for a total round trip time of 1 to 2 years using a Venus swing-by.

Because of these high departure masses out of LEO for chemical propulsion systems, other, more advanced propulsive options have been considered for SBL-type missions. Among the concepts arc nuclear-thermal (NTP) and nuclear-electric (NEP) or solar-electric (SEP) propulsion systems. In NTP systems the propellant, typically hydrogen gas, is heated by conduction from the reactor core and then expanded thermally in a conventional nozzle. Specific impulses of 825 sec have been obtained in the NERVA (Nuclear Engine for Rocket Vehicle Application) program in the late 60's and early 70's¹. Although trip time reductions using an NTP vehicle to Mars can be significant compared to chemical vehicles (typically 50% reduction in flight time), IMLEO mass savings are more moderate. Depending on payload mass, IMLEO mass reductions arc only on the order of 10%².

NEP systems, on the other hand, have shown IMLEO mass reductions around 50%^{1,3,4} using a combination of nuclear-generated electric power and ion thrusters for the propulsion system. The actual value for the IMLEO mass reduction depends heavily on such parameters as the specific mass of the power plant and propulsion system, power output of the onboard power source as well as restrictions regarding flight time. Currently, ion engines arc the only electric propulsion systems that have reached a degree of maturity and performance high enough for use on interplanetary missions. However, they deliver only relatively low thrust

values. The reason for this can be found in the space charge limitation of the ion beam, allowing only a certain maximum ion current to be extracted for a given thruster diameter, grid spacing and accelerator voltage^{5,6}. Since thrust for an ion engine is proportional to the beam current, thrust values will be limited. Low thrust values will result in long trip times unless large amounts of onboard power is available that can be coupled into a large number of thrusters. Therefore, if trip times shorter than those obtainable with chemical systems arc desired, the IMLEO mass of NEP systems can raise dramatically¹.

One way to increase thrust for a given power level or specific impulse is to use heavy ion propellants. In the past, however, problems have arisen using large molecular propellants due to fragmentation of these molecules. Fragmentation was found to be due to ionization, excitation and thermal dissociation. Recently, however, Leifer et al.⁸ suggested a new heavy molecular propellant for ion propulsion applications, a carbon cluster consisting of 60 carbon atoms - C₆₀. The C₆₀ molecule is shown in Fig. 1 and exhibits certain interesting properties such as high molecular mass (720 amu), low ionization potential (7.6 eV) and high stability against fragmentation.

Leifer et al. investigated potential performance benefits of C₆₀ ion propulsion systems over conventional (i.e. xenon) ion thrusters for engines in the 5 kW electric power and 30 cm thruster diameter range as applicable for near-earth orbit transfer missions⁸. Results for C₆₀ were obtained using analytical expressions for thruster efficiency and ion beam production costs⁸. These expressions were derived from an ion thruster performance model developed by Brophy⁹. It was found that C₆₀ ion thrusters arc projected to outperform xenon ion thrusters of the same size with respect to thruster efficiency⁸. In the lower specific impulse range of 1000-2000 sec, being of particular importance for orbit transfer missions, thruster efficiencies for the C₆₀ thruster arc projected to be as high as 80% compared to efficiencies of only 50% and lower for xenon engines. Higher thruster efficiencies will allow for a more economical usage of the provided onboard power and thus enable power system mass reductions or shorter trip times.

The higher mass of the propellant was identified as a major driver for this performance increase of C₆₀ engines⁸. In an ion engine, power is consumed during the generation of ions, the electrostatic acceleration of these ions and smaller

amounts during beam neutralization. Apart from small beam divergence losses, the process of ion acceleration is very efficient, much more so than the process of ion generation with its significant ion and electron wall losses as well as excitation losses. In an ion engine, using heavy ions, a much larger portion of the energy per unit mass is expended on the acceleration of the heavier ions than on ion generation. Therefore, overall thruster efficiency can potentially be significantly higher for a heavy-particle ion engine,

This expected high thruster efficiency and thrust-to-power ratio of a C60 ion engine motivated the investigation of the applicability of C60 ion thrusters for SEI missions. Higher thrust values and thus lower trip times are of particular importance for piloted Mars missions, reducing the exposure of the crew to harmful solar radiation. Although optimal specific impulse ranges for SEI-type missions using inert gas ion thrusters are usually quoted at values significantly higher than those favored by C60 ion thrusters¹, this does not necessarily preclude the use of C60 engines for this type of missions. The optimum specific impulse, although mainly mission driven, will be affected by the propellant type and its efficiency vs. specific impulse characteristics, which may yield a different optimum specific impulse when C60 thrusters were used. It is the purpose of this study to estimate these performance characteristics. Although the primary application for a C60 ion thruster will most likely be found in near-earth orbital transfer missions because of its potential high performance in those relatively low specific impulse ranges, the identification of potential performance benefits that may be obtained with C60 thrusters compared to more conventional inert gas thrusters in a performance range applicable to SEI-type missions could serve as an additional incentive for the development of this engine type.

Scope and Relevance of this Study:

The purpose of this study was to take a "first look" at the idea of using C60 ion thrusters for large scale lunar and interplanetary missions. As a first step toward this goal, an attempt was made to estimate the performance characteristics of large scale C60 ion engines using an analytical model. Comparative calculations were performed for large scale ion thrusters using inert gas propellants, such as xenon, krypton and argon. The scope of performance estimates were focused on a study of large scale ion engine technology only in order to satisfy a corresponding need by mission planners in this regard. It was beyond the scope of this study to conduct an

investigation of SEI-type mission scenarios. However, the data base obtained in this study may be applied by mission designers for large scale lunar or interplanetary mission planning in a second step,

This investigation has been part of a larger research effort to identify new and unique electric propulsion systems that may offer performance benefits over current technology¹⁰. This study is structured into two major parts. In the first part, a review of the state-of-the-art of C60 ion propulsion research is presented. Since C60 is still relatively unknown within the propulsion community, a background on the brief history of C60 and some of its unique properties is given and current activities in C60 ion engine testing are summarized. The purpose of such a summary is to draw attention to some feasibility issues of this engine concept which can not be properly accounted for in the analytical model. In the second part, an analytical model used to estimate large scale C60 thruster performances is presented. This model is based on an earlier analysis performed by Leifer et al.¹¹ with only minor changes added. Performance characteristics for C60 thrusters were estimated using this model and compared with those obtained for the inert gas propellants argon, krypton and xenon. Emphasis was placed on the prediction of key performance parameters, such as efficiency, power consumption, thrust, mass and specific mass, over a wide range of operating conditions, thus offering the mission designer flexibility in exploring a variety of mission profiles.

Given the early, concept-stage development status of C60 ion engine technology such an investigation may seem premature. However, propulsion will play a key role in reducing overall spacecraft mass and, thus, costs for SEI-type missions. Furthermore, the fact that cost considerations will strongly impact the decision on whether or not to proceed with SEI-type missions or not, a study on how new propulsion systems, such as C60 ion engines, may benefit those missions seems warranted. Mission planners intending to use data obtained in this study, however, should recognize that substantial development efforts to arrive at an actually working C60 ion thruster are still required. Results obtained from future C60 engine testing will most certainly force a revision of this study and likely change some of the obtained results. Therefore, this study has to be viewed as an approximate performance characterization of this engine concept.

This study was conducted in late spring of 1992. Significant changes have occurred in the US space program since then. At the time of this writing, the NASA Office of Exploration, that has conducted

and overseen SFI mission studies, has been shut down and remaining SFI related activities will be performed within the newly created Office of Space Science, de-emphasizing the Space Exploration Initiative^{12,13}. As a consequence of scaled-back plans for missions of human exploration, research and development on the S1'-100 space nuclear reactor program has been halted¹⁴, endangering nuclear-electric mission proposals. However, it is expected that studies of human missions to the Moon and Mars will continue on a smaller scale and it is hoped that data obtained in this investigation may serve as a source of reference for future study efforts in this area.

STATE-OF-THE-ART OF C₆₀ ION ENGINE RESEARCH

Background:

Due to recent, rapid developments in the field of carbon cluster physics, it seems useful to briefly review some of the characteristics and properties of this unique molecule. C₆₀ was first discovered by Rohlfsing et al.¹⁵ in 1984 as part of an entire "family" of pure carbon clusters, ranging in size from individual carbon atoms to clusters containing up to 190 atoms. These clusters were generated by evaporating a solid graphite rod with a laser in a helium flow to cool the clusters after formation and, afterwards, expanding the resulting molecular beam through a supersonic nozzle¹⁵. Interestingly, this early research on carbon clusters was stimulated by astrophysical research and the problem of identifying certain absorption bands in the optical spectra of red giant stars and comet tails that had defied explanation for over 70 years¹⁵⁻¹⁸. Carbon cluster nucleation experiments were aimed at simulating the conditions under which these clusters might form in space⁷. Although in the end it was found that spectra obtained under laboratory conditions did not seem to match those astronomical data^{16,18} a flurry of research in carbon cluster physics was initiated by those early experiments.

initial research was focused on a basic understanding of the obtained clustering results. Rohlfsing et al.¹⁵ and soon thereafter Smalley and Kroto et al.¹⁹ and Smalley et al.²⁰ noticed several peculiar characteristics in the mass spectra obtained for these carbon clusters. It was noted that mass spectra seemed to be divided into two different portions, with the C₃₂ cluster marking the dividing line. For larger clusters, only cluster sizes with an even number of carbon atoms could be

observed^{15,19,20}, while for clusters with less than 32 atoms even and odd clusters were found, with intensity maxima obtained for clusters C_n with n=11,15,19,23 and 27 and minima for n=13, 17,25 and 29¹⁵. For clusters larger than n=32, a strong peak was found for C₆₀^{15,17-20} with up to more than 50% of the larger cluster mass accounted for by this cluster alone, depending on experimental conditions¹⁹. Other dominant peaks, although smaller than the one obtained for C₆₀ were noted for C₇₀ as well as C₅₀^{15,17-20}. These findings seemed to indicate a particular stability of these clusters compared to others. Clusters with sizes around the C₃₂ cluster were markedly absent in the mass spectra^{15,17-20}.

Photofragmentation studies by Smalley et al.^{20,21} and Weiss et al.²² were aimed at further investigating the various degrees of stability found for the different carbon clusters. It was found upon laser irradiation that carbon clusters smaller than the C₃₂ cluster fragment by loss of C₃, which is known to be a very stable fragment²¹. Clusters larger than C₃₂, however, fragmented by losing C₂, which was surprising since this fragment is known to be less stable than C₃²¹. However, loss of C₂ fragments by an even cluster will allow for formation of only even daughter fragments, a fact that appears to play a key role in cluster formation and cluster stability for the larger type clusters. During all photofragmentation studies of very large clusters it was noted furthermore that C₆₀ and C₇₀ as well as C₅₀ daughter fragments were favored and that further fragmentation of these clusters and their ions was extremely difficult at the laser fluxes employed throughout the experiments²⁰⁻²³. This fact seems to underline again the extraordinary stability of these clusters, with C₆₀ found to be the most stable of all. The C₃₂ cluster itself was found not to obey either one of the two fragmentation rules mentioned above and completely shattered upon irradiation into fragments in the 10-19 atom range²¹, explaining the absence of clusters in this portion of the mass spectrum.

Observations like these have led Smalley et al.¹⁹ to suggest the possible structure for the C₆₀ cluster depicted in Fig. 1. The molecule basically takes on the shape of a soccer ball with carbon atoms placed on each vertex of the seams of the ball. Because of the similarity of this structure to the one of the geodesic domes of the architect Buckminster Fuller, Smalley et al.¹⁹ subsequently named the C₆₀ molecule "buckminsterfullerene". The carbon atoms are arranged in forms of hexagons and pentagons throughout the molecule as shown in Fig. 1,

connected by single and double bonds, respectively, with no two pentagons adjacent to each other²⁴. This arrangement places the carbon atoms onto a icosahedron with respect to each other. The diameter of the C₆₀ molecule has been determined to 7.1 Å⁶⁻¹⁸. Interestingly, it can be shown theoretically that exactly 12 pentagons are required for an otherwise graphitic (i.e. hexagonal) sheet to curve into a closed shell such as C₆₀, independent of its actual size²⁴. Later on²⁰ it was suggested that all large clusters have a similar shell structure, with C₇₀ appearing slightly oblate and higher order clusters developing "cusps" in their structure at the locations of the twelve pentagons. Strains in the molecular structure expected to focus in these regions¹⁷ could make these clusters more susceptible to fragmentation than C₆₀, where strains are distributed evenly throughout the molecule. The entire "family" of large, closed shell carbon clusters was subsequently named "fullerenes" after the buckminsterfullerene C₆₀ structure which they resemble. Smaller clusters, on the other hand, were visualized as predominantly one and two-dimensional^{20,21} with many "dangling", free bonds. This feature would explain the observed high reactivity of small carbon clusters versus the chemical inertness of large carbon clusters, even when the latter were exposed to such gases as O₂, NH₃, NO, CO, and SO₂^{17,21}. Air oxidation of C₆₀ was only noted above 400°C²⁵. Also explained by this model would be the fact that only even numbered large clusters exist. Although odd cluster shells are allowed to form, they would have several free carbon bonds which enable these clusters to react to form more stable clusters²⁰.

Although Smalley's model was able to explain several of the characteristics of carbon clusters mentioned above, skepticism initially prevailed on how such complicated molecular structures could form in condensing carbon vapor^{17,21}. It has been suggested that large carbon clusters are formed initially by individual carbon atoms or very small clusters present in the vapor, rather than "graphitic sheds" broken off the solid graphite sample during vaporization¹⁷. The latter conclusion seems to be confirmed by the fact that fullerenes cannot only be produced by vaporizing graphite, but also from the condensing carbon vapor of diamond¹⁷ and coal²⁶. Small clusters with their large amount of free bonds are able to react and form subsequently larger clusters. If pentagonal shaped structures are integrated into a graphitic, hexagonal shaped carbon bond, the graphitic sheet curls. If exactly 12 pentagons are present in the right locations in an otherwise hexagonal structure, the sheet may close up on itself

and a fullerene is created^{17,21,24}. However, due to imperfections in the carbon structure, most clusters will not close upon themselves but form nautilus-like shells, i.e. the leading edge of the forming cluster shell "overshoots" the trailing edge and the shell will be unable to close^{17,21,24}. Such nautilus shells will have many free bonds which will allow them to react and form more stable clusters. The relatively inert closed shells without any free bonds, however, are left behind in this nucleation process and are consequently detected in the carbon vapor. It should be noted, however, that the carbon vapor nucleation process is not fully understood yet and that the scenario given above might have to be revised²⁷.

Probably the next important step in carbon cluster physics after the discovery of fullerenes and the identification of their structure, was a modified method of fullerene production demonstrated by Krätschmer et al.⁸. This method allowed for the production of macroscopic quantities of C₆₀ and other carbon clusters, rather than the microscopic quantities produced by the laser vaporization experiments discussed earlier. In Krätschmer's method⁸, carbon vapor is produced by resistive heating of two graphite electrodes touching each other. Currents fed into the graphite electrodes are on the order of 100 amps and both AC and DC currents have been used¹⁶. Since the graphite rods are being consumed in the vaporization process, they have to be continuously fed into the reaction chamber. The graphite vaporization process is performed in a pure helium environment at roughly 200 Torr (266.64 kPa) pressure. Yields of C₆₀ for this method have been found to vary greatly with helium pressure¹⁶. Some researchers believe that helium aids in the cluster nucleation process by keeping the forming carbon clusters close to the heated graphite electrodes, thus allowing them to form larger clusters²⁸. The carbon vapor finally condenses as soot on collecting surfaces. The soot is scraped off these surfaces and dispersed in either benzene or toluene. C₆₀, C₇₀ as well as traces of larger fullerenes go into solution and are thus separated from the remainder of the soot. Evaporating the benzene or toluene leaves a crystalline powder consisting of C₆₀, C₇₀ and traces of larger fullerenes. Krätschmer et al.⁸ called this solid "fullerite". C₆₀ is clearly dominant in fullerite and depending on the manufacturing procedure can be found in ratios of C₆₀/C₇₀ of up to 105:10:11⁷. The ability to produce macroscopic quantities of C₆₀ is obviously of importance for its potential application as an electric rocket propellant as well and will be discussed in greater detail further below.

The fullerite was shown to consist of crystals, shaped in forms of rods, platelets and star-like flakes⁸. Further investigation¹⁷ indicated that the C₆₀ cluster retains its shape even in the solid phase and that the crystals consists of an array of C₆₀ clusters, separated by about 3 Å (1.0 Å center-to-center) and bonded by relatively strong van-der-Waals forces. At room temperature, the carbon clusters rotate in their positions within the lattice¹⁷. Solid C₆₀ has a density¹⁶ of 1.7 g/cm³ and sublimate.s directly into the gas phase at temperatures between 300-400°C¹⁶⁻¹⁸. Solid C₆₀ is a semiconductor, i.e. non-conducting unless it is doped. Foreign atoms placed between the C₆₀ molecules in the lattice can make the new compound superconductive^{16,28-30}. Table 1 summarizes some of the C₆₀ properties discussed in this section.

Because of the ability to produce macroscopic quantities of predominantly C₆₀ and C₇₀ carbon clusters and since it became quite obvious during earlier experiments that these clusters were surprisingly stable, a significant amount of research was subsequently focused on these two fullerenes. Young et al.³¹ conducted a collisional study of C₆₀ and C₇₀ ions with oxygen and helium as collision gases. Once again a preference for the formation of C₆₀ and to a smaller extent C₅₀ daughter fragments was noted upon fragmentation of C₇₀, underlining

Table 1: Some Properties of Solid C₆₀

Properties of Solid C ₆₀	
Density	1.7 g/cm ³
Molecule Mass	720 AMU
Ionization Potential	7.61 eV
Molecule Diameter	7.1 Å
Nearest-neighbor distance in Solid C ₆₀ Crystal	10.6 Å
Conductivity	Semiconductor
Sublimation Temperature	300-400 °C

the stability of these clusters. Fragmentation of all clusters occurs by loss of even cluster fragments, although Young et al.³¹ argued based on collision energy considerations that fragments larger than C₂ might have been lost upon impact.

Although photofragmentation and atomic collision studies provided much insight into the

Structure of carbon clusters, the dominant fragmentation process in ion engines will likely be due to impact of C₆₀ clusters on discharge chamber walls and electron impact. Studies of C₆₀-wall collisions have been conducted by Beck et al.³², Whetten and Yercztian³¹, Busmann et al.^{34,35} and Lill et al.³⁶. Theoretical studies of C₆₀ surface impacts were performed by Mowrey et al.³⁷. Results of these experiments reported by Beck et al.³² indicate that when C₆₀ ions impacted on graphite surfaces no fragmentation was noted even at impact energies as high as 200 eV. Experiments conducted with benzene and naphthalene for comparison using the same experimental apparatus resulted in significant fragmentation even at energies as low as 9 eV³². Busmann et al.^{34,35} noted fragmentation of C₆₀⁺ ions only above 130 eV. An attempt to explain the extraordinary stability of C₆₀ against fragmentation upon surface impact was made through numerical simulations by Mowrey et al.³⁷. At impact energies up to 150 eV Mowrey et al. noted that the spherical C₆₀ molecule completely deforms during impact, taking on an extremely oblate shape, however, rebounds back into its original spherical shape after leaving the surface. This observed behavior was termed *resilience* by Beck et al.³². Mowrey et al. further estimated that at 150 eV impact energies roughly 20% of the impact energy is transferred into recoil energy, 25-30% into heating of the cluster and the remaining energy is dissipated by surface heating. At higher impact energies (200 eV), Mowrey et al. calculated that nonreactive scattering still accounts for 86% of the surface interactions, with the remainder being sticking and -H and -CH pickup. At 250 eV impact energies, fragmentation is observed, only one third of the events are elastic scattering events and another third of the events is accounted for by sticking to the surface³⁷.

Resilience of the C₆₀ cluster may prove to be a major advantage of this molecule over other heavy ion engine propellants proposed in the past^{7,8}. It should be carefully pointed out, however, that no definite conclusions regarding the stability of C₆₀ in an actual ion engine can be drawn from these early wall collision experiments yet. First, C₆₀ molecules will most likely experience multiple wall collisions before being extracted out of the ion engine, as opposed to being subjected to single collision events as in those experiments discussed in the previous paragraph³²⁻³⁷. Secondly, all previous collision experiments were performed with C₆₀ ions³²⁻³⁷, positive and negative, only and no investigations of neutral C₆₀-wall collisions have been performed yet. Third, in Deck's et al.³² experiment, the C₆₀

molecules are cooled in a helium flow after desorption from a C₆₀ film coated steel or tantalum surfaces. No such cooling mechanism would be available in an ion engine, where C₆₀ is being produced by sublimation from its solid, crystalline form. Whetten and Yeretzian³³, however, noted that >109°0 fragmentation of detected scatterers was observed for jet-cooled beams at 310 eV impact energy, while for oven-generated, uncooled molecular beams this threshold was lowered to only 260 eV. Finally, Beck et al.³² pointed out in their investigation that only those collision fragments could be detected with their experimental apparatus that were generated within 2 μs upon impact, thus allowing the possibility for metastable fragmentation after this time period. During their numerical simulations, Mowrey et al.³⁷ also noted that Calculations were only performed over a time period up to 930 fs, leaving open the possibility for metastable fragmentation in their simulations as well. These findings underline the importance of actual C₆₀ ion engine testing in order to fully evaluate the feasibility and performance potential of this thruster concept. Initial results obtained during small scale C₆₀ engine tests will be discussed in the next section.

Current Status of C₆₀ Engine Testing:

Currently, C₆₀ ion engine tests are being performed in the United States at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) and Buseck Co., MA^{38,39}. Activities in C₆₀ ion engine research have been initiated in Japan⁴⁰ and there are reports of C₆₀ thruster tests being conducted in Russia²⁷. However, no details of the work being performed in Japan and Russia are known yet and this review will therefore focus on US research only. Anderson^{41,42} recently initiated experiments with small-scale stainless steel and graphite sources. Anderson's experiments are described in detail in Ref. 42. Briefly, 11 mA beam current could be generated with the stainless steel source at 50 V discharge voltage and 0.12 A discharge current. Oscillations in the discharge voltage were observed in intervals of several minutes, possibly due to soot formation on discharge chamber wall surfaces⁴¹. Temperatures of up to 1000 °C were necessary to provide sufficient fullerene flow rates into the discharge chamber, possibly causing the fragmentation of fullerenes observed. Since it was speculated that the stainless steel used in the engine design also might have had a catalytic effect on fullerene fragmentation⁴¹, tests with a graphite source were conducted. Discharge voltages could be lowered to 35 V but showed a similar transit time behavior as for the stainless steel source. Due to an

improved arrangement of the discharge chamber with respect to the effusive cell, serving to sublimate the solid fullerenes, only 600 °C were required to provide sufficient flow rates. Figure 2 shows the graphite source. The graphite components themselves are not visible since they are surrounded by a stainless steel heat shield. Recognizable are three solenoids providing the magnetic field for the engine.

At Buseck Co., a C₆₀ source manufactured entirely from quartz was tested^{38,39}. Interestingly, not only the discharge chamber was made out of quartz but also the C₆₀ vaporizer and, in an earlier version of the experiment, the grids, which were gold plated to make them conductive and later replaced by molybdenum and stainless steel grids. The source, had a diameter of 3.5" and discharge chamber length of 4" and functioned according to the electron bombardment principle, using a cathode (tungsten filament) and an annular stainless steel anode. Using a mix of C₆₀ and C₇₀ at a ratio of 80% to 20%, a beam current of 20 mA was drawn from the source at beam ion costs of 915 eV. This value is high even for a small, unoptimized ion engine and is related to the high discharge voltages required to sustain the fullerene discharge. Discharge voltages around 200 V were required at times to operate a discharge. This fact was attributed to cathode poisoning. After operating the tungsten filament cathode in a fullerene discharge, the filament was coated with layers of a graphite soot. This increased the discharge voltage over its low current measured value of 40 V when the cathode was clean at the beginning of the test. No fragmentation of C₆₀ was noted during operation of the engine, except in areas near the cathode. This conclusion was drawn from deposits found coating various engine parts as well as a cooled collector plate mounted downstream of the engine grids. It is further interesting to note that during these experiments no evidence was found that C₆₀ fragmentation is being catalyzed by such materials as stainless steel, molybdenum, boron nitride, alumina or quartz.

As can be seen from these early thruster tests, C₆₀ ion engine technology is still in its infancy. None of the thruster designs used so far have been optimized for performance and are usually small scale models used for proof-of-concept type studies. While performance optimization is certainly a future goal, several feasibility issues still remain to be resolved before then. As became clear during these early experiments and was pointed out by Leifer et al.⁸, issues regarding fragmentation of C₆₀ under operating conditions typical for an ion engine, condensation of C₆₀ at discharge chamber surfaces and sputtering of engine components by C₆₀ ions remain to be investigated in greater detail.

Condensation of C₆₀ could pose a problem if conventional electron bombardment (Kaufmann) type thrusters are being used. Since C₆₀ is a semiconductor, condensation on electrode surfaces could impair thruster operation in addition to potential clogging problems of the propellant feed system⁸. In this case, the usage of a radio frequency ion thruster and using heated propellant lines have been suggested⁸.

Propellant Feed Systems for Fullerenes:

During the initial testing of C₆₀ engine concepts as described above, the propellant feed system simply consisted of an effusive cell, in which the entire propellant reservoir was heated, causing solid C₆₀ to sublimate and enter the discharge chamber by means of diffusion. While such a relatively simple feed system is appropriate for early proof-of-concept tests attempting to demonstrate the feasibility of a C₆₀ ion engine, it is insufficient to demonstrate the feasibility of an entire C₆₀ ion propulsion subsystem and definitely not appropriate for actual space missions. Heating the entire propellant reservoir is wasteful in terms of power expended, lowering the overall efficiency of the system.

One possible solution to this problem is to transport solid C₆₀ out of the propellant tank to the engine by pumping a C₆₀ slurry (see Figure 3) out of the propellant tank into the effusive cell. C₆₀ slurry would be pumped through a filter, comparable to propellant filters in use today for chemical propulsion systems. C₆₀ would remain in the filter which at the same time serves as an effusive cell, providing the engine with C₆₀ vapor. By adjusting the heating profile, properly, C₆₀ vapor will leave the cell through the orifice connecting it with the discharge chamber. As C₆₀ is being used up, new fullerenes are being transported through the slurry to the cell. The liquid transporting the fullerenes could either be recycled or dumped overboard to reduce spacecraft mass.

A second concept would involve compressed fullerenes that are pushed through a barrel directly into an effusive cell (Figure 4). This feed mechanism would be spring loaded for simplicity and C₆₀ is being moved down the barrel as it vaporizes out of the cell. Since the C₆₀ is held in place by the barrel, it does not necessarily need to form a stable rod. In both cases it is crucial to the success of the designs to ensure that C₆₀ being vaporized leaves the effusive cell only through the orifice connecting it with the discharge chamber and no leakage occurs

elsewhere. Experimental testing is obviously necessary to determine the feasibility of these concepts.

C₆₀ Production:

In order to serve as an electric rocket propellant, sufficient quantities of fullerenes, produced at low cost, would have to be available. Since C₆₀ is the most stable and the most abundant of all fullerenes, it is the fullerene of choice for potential propulsion applications. As was pointed out earlier, initial methods of C₆₀ production were limited to laser vaporization of graphite targets, able to produce only microscopic quantities of C₆₀ vapor. Krätschmer's experiment¹⁸ allowed the production of macroscopic quantities of solid fullerenes using resistive heating of graphite rods. Quantities of fullerenes produced, however, still remained limited to roughly 100 mg per day. The yield was subsequently increased by other researchers, using modifications to Krätschmer's experiment^{18,43,44}. Hauffler et al.⁴³ was able to increase the C₆₀ quantities to several grams per day by using an arc discharge between graphite electrodes rather than using resistive heating. The yield of fullerenes in the soot collected amounted to 10 ± 2%.

These yields were increased by Parker et al.⁴⁴ to 44%. Modifications in this experiment were related to optimizing the arc discharge. A DC power supply was used and the gap between the electrode optimized to about 4 mm for maximum yield. Typical operating conditions for the arc were 18 V at 60 A (roughly 1 kW power consumption). Two different electrodes were used, one 1/4" (6.35 mm) in diameter while the second electrode was 1/2" (12.7 mm) in diameter. Only the 1/4" electrode was consumed in the process at a rate of 0.2 in/min (5 mm/min). In addition to optimizing the arc discharge, a static He atmosphere at 200 Torr (266.64 kPa) was used rather than a flowing system, which could pump away fullerenes that had not condensed yet. Other modifications to increase the yield of fullerenes included the placement of shims inside the reaction chamber to increase the surface area available for condensation and proper selection of solvents to separate fullerenes and soot.

Despite recent advances made in the development of high yield fullerene production, the delivered quantities are still completely insufficient for propulsion applications, particularly large scale SEI-type missions. Krätschmer's method and variations thereof^{18,43,44} still involve a high fraction of manual labor when scraping the soot from

condenser surfaces. This process would therefore have to be mechanized and scaled up to yield larger quantities of fullerenes as required by propulsion applications.

Currently, soot containing 12% fullerenes by weight is available for roughly \$30 per gram⁴¹. Producing larger quantities of fullerenes should lower costs. An additional opportunity to lower costs would be to vaporize coal in an arc discharge rather than graphite since coal is significantly cheaper than graphite²⁶. Yields from the vaporization of coal ranged up to 8.6% of fullerenes by mass in the soot collected versus 9.3% from graphite under identical conditions²⁶. A completely different way of producing fullerenes was discovered recently by Howard et al.⁴⁵ who identified fullerenes in the soot produced by hydrocarbon flames. Yields were as high as 9% of fullerenes per soot mass depending on operating conditions and 0.3% per fuel carbon mass. This process appears to be easily scalable to produce larger quantities of fullerenes.

A major driver in the production of large scale quantities of fullerenes will also be the potential for application of C₆₀ and related fullerenes in areas other than propulsion, such as the recent discoveries of superconductivity in doped C₆₀ films^{6,28-30}. New technologies like these may significantly increase the demand for fullerenes and contribute to increased fullerene production capabilities. If, however, these production capabilities remain insufficient for the needs of propulsion applications, and in particular large scale SEI-type missions, providing additional production capabilities might significantly contribute to the development cost of large scale C₆₀ ion engine technology.

Summary:

This survey of current activities in C₆₀ ion engine testing and the review of several other feasibility issues involved in the development of fullerene thrusters shows that C₆₀ ion engines clearly have to be classified as "advanced propulsion systems", i.e. they are not readily available and, in certain areas at least, still require substantial development efforts. When analyzing the performance potential of large scale C₆₀ ion engine technology, and when applying results obtained from this study to SEI-type mission scenarios, the early development status of this technology should be recognized. The analytical model to be described in the next chapter will therefore only represent an estimate of the performance characteristics of large scale C₆₀ ion

technology, based on the preliminary experimental data obtainable today.

ANALYSIS

Approach:

The analytical model presented in this chapter estimates thruster performances, such as thrust, mass, input power, efficiency and specific mass with specific impulse being the independent variable. The objective of this analysis is to determine these engine parameters for cases in which thrust has been maximized for a given engine. Calculations are performed for C₆₀ propellant as well as the inert gases argon, krypton and xenon. This model was based on an earlier analysis made by Leifer et al.¹¹ which in turn relied in part on Brophy's model⁹. The ion engine type modeled in this study is of the ring-cusp, electron, bombardment type. However, specific ion production schemes are not modeled in this analysis and are simply accounted for by a "lumped" ion production energy input parameter. Data obtained for non-mass related variables are therefore representative of other ion thruster types as well when adjustments of specific thruster input parameters such as ion production energy or mass utilization are made. Mass estimates are based on a model developed by Aston et al.^{46,47} for ring-cusp engines. Both two and three grid systems are modeled.

Several design restrictions were placed on the model. A maximum span-to-gap ratio, i.e. the ratio of grid diameter to grid spacing, of 500 was assumed. This value is consistent with current grid technology^{46,47} and accounts for the fact that for a given grid spacing the grid diameter cannot be increased arbitrarily due to thermal expansion and deflection of the grids. It should be pointed out, however, that future advances in grid technology, such as using carbon-carbon grids, may increase this value. Other restrictions are placed on the minimum allowable grid spacing chosen in accord with other studies^{11,46,47} to 0.6 mm. The maximum allowable field strength between the grids was assumed as 3000 V/mm in order to avoid grid breakdown^{11,46-48}. This electric field strength was held constant throughout the calculations for simplicity. This is an idealizing assumption, since the breakdown field strength actually drops with increasing grid spacing and the results obtained using this model should therefore be interpreted as an approximation. Grid diameters were varied between 50 cm and 100 cm. Fifty centimeter ion engines are already under development⁴⁹. The upper grid diameter boundary

was picked somewhat arbitrarily. Only one case of experimental testing of an ion engine larger than 1 m diameter exists. The 1.5 m dia. NASA Lewis engine was run in the early 1970's on mercury. However, difficulties were encountered when trying to maintain a stable discharge⁵⁰. By limiting the upper grid diameter boundary to a value less than that of the NASA Lewis engine, a compromise was attempted between conducting a study conservative enough to be credible while still allowing for sufficient flexibility for potential future thruster developments.

The algorithm governing this model is explained in detail below. Briefly, the calculation procedure is divided into two regimes, covering different specific impulse ranges and determined by the design restrictions given above. In both ranges, the objective is to maximize thrust for a certain specific impulse value. In the first range, for a given specific impulse the required beam voltage is calculated and, based on the breakdown condition for the grids given above, the grid spacing is determined. The net-to-total voltage ratio has been set to its lowest value of $R=0.2$ in this range to allow for the highest thrust density. For the mentioned maximum allowable span-to-gap ratio the maximum grid diameter is determined. Using grid permeance data, the maximum allowable beam current is calculated, which determines such parameters as thruster input power and thrust.

In the first range the maximum allowable engine size is determined which will yield the maximum thrust for the specified specific impulse. This calculation procedure is repeated until an engine diameter of 1 m has been reached. At this point, the second regime begins where the diameter is held constant at 1 m and the net-to-total voltage ratio is being increased from its initial value of 0.2 to its final value of 0.9. Although beam divergence increases with lower net-to-total voltage values, it has been assumed in this analysis to be constant throughout the calculations at a value of $95 \pm 1^\circ$. Since the engine diameter remains fixed at 1 m, thrust is now increased by raising beam voltage and the specific impulse value only. Beam current, beam current density, discharge current and propellant consumption are all assumed to remain constant in this regime.

Within the second regime, at a net-to-total voltage ratio of $R=0.55$, a switch is made from a three grid system used at lower R values to a two grid system for higher R values. This change is motivated by results obtained from experiments performed by Rawlin and Hawkins^{51,52} using a 30-cm mercury ion thruster. For R values less than 0.55, a rapid increase in accelerator drain current has

been noted for two grid optics. Improved beam optics for a three grid system allows operation to R values as low as 0.2^{51,52}. It should be noted, however, that more recently two grid systems have been operated successfully at R values less than 0.55.

In order to minimize thruster mass, at an R value of 0.55 and above, the three-grid system is replaced by a lighter weight two-grid system. The upper boundary of 0.9 for the net-to-total voltage ratio is given by the minimum negative voltage that can be applied to the accelerator grid of the two-grid system without causing electron flow into the thruster from the neutralizer discharge⁵³. Therefore, with the exception of the change in grid systems, in the second regime one thruster configuration (1 m diameter) is modeled over a range of operating conditions.

Governing Equations:

The governing equations in this model have been derived by Blandino¹¹ during an earlier investigation of high power electric propulsion devices. They are repeated here for convenience.

Regime I: in the first regime, beam voltage may be expressed in terms of specific impulse using the standard energy balance equation between the electrostatic and kinetic energy of the ions. Taking into account neutral particle losses and thrust divergence losses, yet neglecting multiple charged ions, one obtains

$$V_B = \frac{m_i}{2e} \left(\frac{g I_{sp}}{\eta_a \delta} \right)^2 \quad (1)$$

which can be written as

$$V_B = C_0 I_{sp}^2 \quad (2)$$

with

$$C_0 = \frac{m_i}{2e} \left(\frac{g}{\eta_a \delta} \right)^2 \quad (3)$$

The beam current is determined by

$$I_B = j A_B \quad (4)$$

The average current density can be written as

$$j = f_b (NPPH) \sqrt{\frac{131.2}{M_w} \left(\frac{4}{\pi} \right) \frac{V_T^{3/2}}{l_e^2}} \quad (5)$$

Here, V_T is the total voltage, i.e. the voltage between screen and accelerator grid, $NPPH$ is the normalized perveance parameter, which allows the perveance equation, Eqn. (5) to fit experimental data and has been taken here as $2.84 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A/V}^{3/2}$ in accordance with other sources in the literature⁴⁷. The square root allows this equation to be used for other gases than xenon for which it was originally derived. The factor f_b is the beam flatness parameter. It takes into account the fact that the beam current density is not uniformly distributed across the grid diameter, but rather peaks at the grid center. The relationship between maximum and average current density is

$$f_b = \frac{j_{\text{max}}}{j} \quad (6)$$

The variable l_e in Eqn. (5) is defined as the effective acceleration length and follows from the screen-accelerator grid gap l_g and the screen grid hole diameter d_s through a simple geometric relationship as

$$l_e = \sqrt{l_g^2 + \frac{d_s^2}{4}} \quad (7)$$

For state-of-the-art grids it was assumed for the screen grid hole diameter⁴⁷

$$d_s = l_g / 0.3 \quad (8)$$

which in the case of a minimum grid gap of 0.6 mm would give minimum screen hole diameters of 2 mm. Current screen grid designs have hole diameters as little as 1.9 mm which agrees reasonably well with the assumption used in Eqn. (8). Inserting Eqn. (8) into Eqn. (7) gives

$$l_e^2 = 3.778 l_g^2 \quad (9)$$

Using the maximum allowable electric field strength E_m between screen and accelerator grid, the maximum allowable total voltage between those grids can be determined as

$$V_{T,\text{max}} = \frac{E_m}{l_g} \quad (10)$$

Inserting Eqn. (9) into Eqn. (5), using Eqn. (10) to substitute for l_g , assuming a value of $V_{T,\text{max}}$ for V_T in Eqn. (5) since we are interested in maximizing the thrust density of the engine and finally using the relationship

$$R = \frac{V_B}{V_T} \quad (11)$$

for the net-to-total voltage ratio yields

$$j = f_b \frac{(NPPH)}{3.778} \sqrt{\frac{131.2}{M_w} \left(\frac{4}{\pi} \right) E_m^2 R^{1/2} V_B^{-1/2}} \quad (12)$$

Substituting for V_B from Eqn. (2) one obtains

$$j = C_1 \frac{R^{-1/2}}{I_{sp}} \quad (13)$$

where the constant C_1 is written as

$$C_1 = f_b \frac{(NPPH)}{3.778} \sqrt{\frac{131.2}{M_w} \left(\frac{4}{\pi} \right) \frac{E_m^2}{C_0^{1/2}}} \quad (14)$$

The final step to obtain an expression for the beam current now consists of evaluating A_B . The total grid area can be written as

$$A_g = \frac{\pi}{4} D_g^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} \left[\frac{s}{g} \right]^2 l_g^2 \quad (15)$$

where $[s/g]$ is the span-to-gap ratio, always taken at its maximum value of 500 to maximize thrust. The beam area now relates to the total grid area by incorporating the open area fraction ϕ_S for the screen grid:

$$A_B = \phi_S A_g \quad (16)$$

Using relations (15), (10), (11) and (2) one can find for the beam area

$$A_B = C_2 \frac{I_{sp}^4}{R^2} \quad (17)$$

where C_2 is written as

$$C_2 = \frac{\pi}{4} \left[\frac{s}{g} \right]^2 \frac{\phi_S}{E_m^2} C_0^2 \quad (18)$$

Inserting Eqns (13) and (18) into Eqn. (4) finally gives for the beam current

$$I_B = \frac{C_1 C_2}{R^{3/2}} I_{sp}^3 \quad (19)$$

Since with Eqn. (13) the maximum available beam current density was calculated, the beam area determined by Eqn. (17) represents the smallest beam area able to produce the beam current determined by Eqn. (19). Given an expression for the beam current, the thruster input power may now be calculated. The thruster input power can be written as

$$P_I = I_B [V_B + \epsilon + V_{NC}] + P_{Heat} \quad (20)$$

Here, ϵ represents the beam ion production costs expressed in eV/ion or W/A, V_{NC} is the neutralizer coupling voltage and this term in Eqn. (20) accounts for power losses due to beam neutralization. In addition, there are other, small power losses associated with heating of various engine components such as hollow cathodes and neutralizers. Since these power losses are small and occur only temporarily during engine operation, they have been neglected. Note, however, that for C60 engines other power losses occurring during heating of the C60 propellant and propellant feed lines might not be negligible and might have to be included. For the case of C60, only the heat required to sublime the propellant has been taken into account since it was difficult to estimate feed line heaters without knowing the exact engine configuration. The power required for sublimation of C60 may be written as

$$P_s = \Delta H_s \frac{\dot{m}}{M_w} \quad (21)$$

where ΔH_s is the required heat of sublimation for C60 and \dot{m} is the propellant flow rate. M_w in this case is the molar weight of C60, i.e. 720 g/mole. For ΔH_s a value of 43.01 kcal/mole (180.1 kJ/mole) was used⁵³. This value seems to agree well with other data in recent literature on this subject^{54,55}. The total heat requirement for sublimation of C60 is then

$$P_{Heat} = \frac{1}{\eta_{Heat}} P_s \quad (22)$$

where η_{Heat} is the efficiency of the effusive cell, taking into account heat losses from the cell. However, since propellant feed mechanisms for fullerene propellants do not yet exist, η_{Heat} cannot

be accurately determined yet and in the following only P_s has been calculated. As will be shown, the power required to sublime C60 propellant is so small compared to the power required for beam acceleration, that even neglecting the heat loss term in Eqn. (20) has an almost unnoticeable effect on the calculation of the thruster input power.

Using Eqn. (2) and (19) in Eqn. (20) yields

$$P_I = C^* C_1 C_0 I_{sp}^5 + C_2 C_1 (\epsilon + V_{NC}) I_{sp}^3 + P_{Heat} \quad (23)$$

The remaining performance parameters to be determined are thrust and thruster efficiency. For the thrust we obtain

$$T = \frac{I_B m_i g}{e \eta_u} I_{sp} \quad (24)$$

taking into account thrust losses due to diffusion of neutrals. Inserting the relationship (19) for I_B gives

$$T = \left(\frac{C_2 C_1 m_i g}{e \eta_u} \right) R^{-3/2} I_{sp}^4 \quad (25)$$

Thruster efficiency is defined as

$$\eta_T = \eta_{el} \eta_u \delta^2 \quad (26)$$

which includes electric losses, neutral particle losses and thrust divergence losses. The electric efficiency η_{el} can be written as

$$\eta_{el} = \frac{I_B V_B}{I_B (V_B + \epsilon + V_{NC})} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\epsilon + V_{NC}}{V_B}} \quad (27)$$

Inserting the expression (2) for V_B finally gives

$$\eta_T = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\epsilon + V_{NC}}{C_0} I_{sp}^{-2}} \quad (28)$$

Remaining thruster performance parameters, such as specific mass and thrust-to-power ratio are easily derived from the expressions given above:

$$a = \frac{M_F}{P_I} \quad (29)$$

$$[T/P] = \frac{T}{P_t} \quad (30)$$

Finally, discharge currents were calculated for the engine, which follow from an expression derived by Brophy⁹

$$I_D = I_B \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{V_B} \right) \quad (31)$$

Using Eqns. (2), (13), (17), (19), (23), (25), (28) and (29) through (31), the algorithm as discussed above for Regime I follows easily. All thruster performance parameters have been expressed in terms of the specific impulse as the independent variable. The beam area A_B is also a function of I_{sp} as a result of the design restrictions imposed on this model. Thruster beam area increases with the specific impulse and the model calculates the smallest thruster able to generate the maximum available thrust at this specific impulse value (based on the design restrictions given above). As the thruster beam area reaches a value of 1 m diameter, calculations in Regime I are terminated and calculations are continued in Regime II.

Regime II: In Regime II, thruster diameter is assumed constant at 1 m diameter and further thrust increases are achieved by increasing the net-to-total voltage ratio, R . R is increased by increasing the beam voltage V_B only, while V_T , the total accelerating voltage between screen and accelerator grids remains constant at its maximum allowable value for the given grid spacing. This implies that the current density, j remains constant, since j does not depend on V_B . Constant beam area and current density yield constant beam current, discharge current and propellant flow rate. Furthermore, for the specified span-to-gap ratio, the grid spacing remains unchanged in Regime II. Thruster mass also remains constant with the exception of the data point at $R=0.55$ when the three-grid system is being replaced by the two-grid system which causes a mass reduction. Therefore, one easily derives for Regime II from the expressions given above

$$A_B = \text{const.} \quad (32)$$

$$I_B = \text{const.} \quad (33)$$

$$I_D = \text{const.} \quad (34)$$

$$j = \text{const.} \quad (35)$$

$$V_T = \text{const.} \quad (36)$$

$$I_g = \text{const.} \quad (37)$$

and

$$P_I = I_B (C_0 I_{sp} + \epsilon + V_{NC} + P_{heat}) \quad (38)$$

$$T = I_B \left(\frac{m_i g}{e \eta_u} \right) I_{sp} \quad (39)$$

and Eqns (2) and (28) through (30) remain unchanged.

The algorithm for the model described by Eqns (1) through (39) differs somewhat from the model developed by Leifer et al. [1]. In their model, the first regime was used up to the specific impulse value where the discharge current reached a specified value, assumed to be 500 A. This approach allowed grid diameters to increase significantly beyond 1 m diameter. Calculations then proceeded in a second regime precisely as discussed here. After that, a third regime was added where the net-to-total voltage ratio was held constant and thrust was increased by increasing both beam voltage and total voltage in exactly the same ratio. In order to maintain the constant maximum discharge and beam currents, thruster beam area had to grow further since current density decreases for constant R but increasing beam voltage (decreasing total voltage) (see Eqn. (13)). This approach finally led to beam diameters in excess of 2 m. Because of the discussion made above regarding large diameter ion engines, the algorithm in this study was changed accordingly.

Input Parameters:

Input parameters to the model for the various propellants are summarized in Table 2. Neutralizer coupling voltage, ionizer chamber length, open area grid fraction, beam flatness parameter and the divergence thrust loss factor have been kept constant throughout the calculation and have been assumed to be the same for all propellants as 20 V, 0.20 m, 75%, 0.6 and 0.95, respectively. The open area screen grid fraction is somewhat optimistic; recent grid technology shows screen grid open arc fractions around 67%. Data for propellant utilization efficiency and discharge voltage for the three inert gas propellants were taken from Rawlin⁵⁶. These data are based on measurements taken with a 30-cm J-series thruster.

Beam ion production cost of 150 eV/ion were assumed for all inert gas propellants, a little lower than most of the data obtained for the 30-cm class thruster⁵⁶, taking into account lower expected losses for larger diameter thrusters. For simplicity these values were kept constant, throughout the calculations. Strictly, this assumption is not correct and the calculations performed can therefore only be regarded as an approximation. However, due to the large power consumption by the accelerator system of these large scale thrusters, changes in beam ion production cost, accounting for discharge chamber losses, hardly affect the obtained results.

Estimating values for the propellant utilization and beam ion production costs for C60 proved to be more difficult. Leifer et al.⁸ recently estimated beam ion production costs of 90 eV/ion for a 30-cm class thruster using Brophy's model⁹. Using the same approach, however, relying on new data for ionization cross sections by electrons and a numerical calculation for the primary electron utilization factor, Torres et al.⁵⁷ estimated beam ion production cost in excess of 180 eV for a 13-cm thruster. The discrepancy between these two data sets may also be explained, in part, by the fact that larger thrusters commonly result in lower beam ion production costs due to smaller wall losses per beam ion.

Obviously, none of these estimates compares well with the preliminary experimental data of 900 eV/ion discussed earlier³⁸⁻⁴². However, the early experimental data obtained so far do not readily lend themselves to extrapolation for performance-optimized, large scale (> 50 cm diameter) engines. None of the small scale thrusters tested was optimized for performance and they only served proof-of-concept type studies. For example, the JPL C60 thrusters used grids with only 19, 1/8" holes on both, screen and accelerator grids. This design, although justifiable in terms of simplicity and low cost of small scale engine testing, certainly does not compare favorably with state-of-the-art grid designs. Even for small 15 cm thrusters, open area fractions of 67% are being obtained by placing over 4000 holes on each grid. For these reasons, the estimates obtained with Brophy's model were taken as a guideline and the value obtained by Leifer's et al.⁸ study was used, rounded up to a round figure of 100 eV/ion, since it was the one calculated for the larger thruster. Obviously, this is only a very approximate assumption, likely required to be updated new data for this parameter become available. As mentioned earlier, however, for high power ion engine applications, such as the ones

discussed in this model, errors introduced by this approximation are minor since most of the power is used for ion acceleration.

Propellant mass utilizations for large scale C60 thrusters are obviously not known either. Estimates obtained by Torres et al.⁵⁷ for the 13-cm engine indicate propellant utilization efficiencies as high as 0.9 for reasonably low beam ion production costs. The same value was used throughout these calculations for C60. As for the inert gas propellants, the input data for propellant utilization and beam ion production costs were held constant throughout the calculations.

RESULTS

Total power consumption, i.e. thruster input power P_I , versus specific impulse for the different propellants C60, xenon, krypton and argon is shown in Figure 5. Several important observations can be made by studying this figure. First, although the data cover a thruster diameter range from 50 cm to 100 cm for all propellants, the thrusters deliver substantially different specific impulses for the different propellants. As expected, the heavy C60 propellant can only deliver specific impulse values in the range from 1000 to 3000 seconds within the design restrictions included in the model, since the voltages that can be applied over the given grid spacings are not sufficient to accelerate the heavy molecule to greater velocities. Accordingly, xenon data range from 2500 to 7500 seconds, krypton values from 3000 to 9500 seconds and argon data from 4000 to 12,000 seconds.

Secondly, total power consumption for the C60 thruster is significantly lower than those for the inert gas thrusters. A 1-m C60 thruster only requires 80 kW at maximum specific impulse while a xenon thruster of the same size requires up to 200 kW at its maximum specific impulse value. This result is not surprising at all as can be found by inspecting Eqn. (3) and (38) closer. Eqn. (38) describes the thruster input power in Regime II, corresponding to the upper ranges of power levels depicted in Figure 5. As can be seen from Eqs (3) and (38), the input power is a function of the ion mass and the square of the specific impulse, obviously following directly from an identical relationship for the kinetic beam energy.

Table 2: Input Parameters for the Analytical Thruster Performance Model

	Propellant
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Input Parameter	C60	Xenon	Krypton	Argon
MW (g/mole)	720	131.30	83.80	39.948
m _i (kg)	1.2043x 10 ⁻²⁴	2.1962x 10 ⁻²⁵	1.4017x10 ⁻²⁵	6.68 19X1 0 ⁻²⁶
ε (eV/ion)	100	150	150	150
η _u	0.90	0.90	0.88	0.78
δ	0.95	0.95	0.95	0.95
V _D (v)	35	36	44	46
V _{NC} (V)	20	20	20	20
f _b	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6

Thus, increasing the mass of the propellant will have a much lesser impact on the power consumption than increasing the specific impulse. Therefore, although the lighter propellant thrusters can operate at a much larger specific impulse, this increased specific impulse has to be paid for by a significantly increased power requirement. Also visible on Figure 5 is the boundary between Regimes I and II, recognizable by the sharply changing slopes of the power curves.

In addition to operation at higher specific impulses, the lower thruster efficiencies of the lighter inert gas engines also contribute somewhat to the increased power requirement. Figure 6 shows the relationship between thruster efficiency and specific impulse for the various propellants. Notable are the high projected thruster efficiencies for the heavy propellant C60 and the correspondingly lower efficiencies for the lighter propellants. The impact of high propellant mass on thruster efficiency has been alluded to in the introduction and can now also be quantitatively explained by inspecting the mathematical relationship obtained for the thruster efficiency in the previous section. Eqn. (28) in conjunction with Eqn. (3) indicates that higher ion masses result in greater efficiencies. The advantage of C60 engines in this regard in the specific impulse range from 1000 to 3000 seconds is obvious from Figure 6.

Note, however, that the specific impulse also enters the equation for the thruster efficiency and may offset the impact of the propellant mass. For a given power, according to Figure 5, lighter propellant engines can be operated at higher specific impulses, as noted above. These higher impulse values also increase the thruster efficiency, so that when comparing the thruster efficiencies for different propellants at the same power level the differences are not as great as when comparing efficiencies at the same specific impulse value. In particular for the respective maximum obtainable specific impulse values for the 1-m thruster, the differences in thruster efficiency between xenon and C60 have almost completely disappeared due to the much higher

obtainable maximum specific impulse for xenon than for C60.

Although the latter point made concerning the thruster efficiency seems to indicate that a major advantage of C60 engines over inert gas thrusters has been lost, this is not so. Thruster efficiency is an important performance parameter for an electric thruster because it determines how much power has to be provided for the engine. Thruster efficiencies for inert gas thrusters, however, can only be raised to levels obtainable with C60 thrusters by operating the inert gas engines at high specific impulses. The required power increase to accomplish this mode of operation for the inert gas thrusters, however, completely offsets any gains achieved for the thruster efficiency. It should be mentioned in this context, however, that the selection of the specific impulse is also mission driven and the choice of specific impulses may therefore be limited.

Figure 7 shows the total thruster power consumption plotted versus thrust. As can be seen, for a given power level the C60 engine is able to provide significantly more thrust than the inert gas engines because of operation at lower I_{sp} . At a power level of 80 kW and a thruster diameter of 1 m, the thrust level obtainable for C60 is 4 N and for xenon it is roughly 2.5 N (see also Tables A.1 and A.2 in the Appendix). Note, however, that over the range of thrust values considered in Fig. 7, in many cases a comparison between thrusters of equal size cannot be made. For the lighter inert gases engine diameters may be significantly smaller than for C60. This is a result of the algorithm used in this model, which maximizes thrust for an ion engine and therefore always determines the smallest thruster diameter still able to provide a certain thrust level. In this case, for the same power level as for C60, the specific impulse of the inert gas thrusters has to be reduced significantly to accommodate this low power level. This reduces the beam voltage, forcing a reduction in the total accelerator voltage V_T in order to keep the net-to-total voltage ratio above its minimum value of 0.2. A lower accelerator voltage, however, allows for a smaller grid gap and, thus, increased current and thrust density of the grid, decreasing its size.

A similar observation can be made when comparing thrust values achievable with the different propellants for the same specific impulse as shown in Figure 8. C60 propellant generates more thrust at a given specific impulse than any of the inert gases. For a specific impulse around 3000 seconds, this thrust increase over xenon is almost four-fold which, because of reasons stated above, in the case of this model, however, is partly due to larger thruster diameters.

An interesting observance can be made when inspecting Figure 7 again. It can be noted that for the highest projected thrust values, where, all engines have a 1-m diameter and are operated at their maximum R-value of 0.9, this thrust value is identical for all propellants. This result may seem surprising at first, however, is easily explained by inspecting the algorithm of this model discussed above. Concentrating the upper range of thrust values shown in Figure 7 to simplify the discussion, the thrust equation (39) is valid. Note, however, that the specific impulse, as well as, the beam current enter the thrust equation. Both, specific impulse values and beam currents, however, are much higher for the inert gas thrusters and thus offset thrust gains made by C60 due to its higher molecular mass. As a matter of fact, since beam current and specific impulse are proportional by a factor $(1/\sqrt{m_i})$, the mass dependency cancels out in the thrust equation, resulting in all engines delivering the identical thrust.

Thus, it seems possible for a given thruster size to offset any thrust gains made by C60 due to its higher mass by operating it on inert gases at higher beam currents and specific impulse values. While this is a theoretical possibility, several practical design issues may stand in the way of such a decision. First, as has been discussed earlier, selection of the optimum specific impulse is mission dependent, limiting the available choices. Second, the specific impulse increase has to be paid for by significantly increased power requirements. For a thrust level of 4 N, 80 kW are required for a C60 engine but almost 200 kW for a xenon engine with this parameter reaching values of 240 kW and almost 350 kW for krypton and argon propellants, respectively. Figure 9 plots the thrust-to-power ratio for the various propellants and illustrates probably one of the most important conclusions obtained from this study. As can be seen, the thrust-to-power ratio for C60 engines is higher by a factor of almost 2.5 over the corresponding values for xenon over the entire range of thrust levels. These reduced power requirements would result in extensive onboard power plant mass reductions for a C60 propulsion system, a trend that

is supported by increased thruster efficiencies for the heavier C60 propellant discussed earlier. On the other hand, however, it also has to be noted that due to the lower specific impulse capability of C60 thrusters propellant mass requirements will increase for a given Av. Future mission design studies will have to investigate this trade-off further.

Secondly, as illustrated in Figure 10, the higher beam currents required for inert gas engines to achieve the same thrust levels as for C60 result in large discharge currents for a Kaufmann-type thruster configuration. While even a 1-m diameter C60 thruster, operating at a thrust level of 4 N, only requires a relatively benign 50 A discharge current, these values increase to 180 A, 190 A and 260 A for xenon, krypton and argon, respectively. It should be carefully noted, however, that discharge current calculations are influenced by the beam ion production costs and that there still exists some uncertainty regarding this parameter for C60.

Finally, Figures 11 and 12 show specific mass data which are of particular interest for mission planners. In Figure 11, specific masses are plotted versus thruster input power. As can be observed, specific mass values for C60 thrusters are higher for lower power levels, since in these cases larger C60 engines are compared with smaller inert gas thrusters as discussed above. For higher power levels, as inert gas engines reach the 1-m thruster diameter limit as well, all specific masses converge upon the same values for all propellants.

In Figure 12, the same specific mass data are plotted against specific impulses. Here, the C60 data stay lower than the inert gas data, a trend that is followed by the heavier inert gases when compared with the lighter gases. The explanation for this behavior can be found by inspecting Figure 5 again. For the same specific impulse higher power levels are required for the heavier propellants since more energy has to be expended accelerating the heavier ions. As a result the specific mass, i.e. the thruster mass divided by this power level, drops.

Other results obtained in the course of this study were data on thruster masses, ranging between 19 kg and 45 kg, propellant mass flow rates, ranging between 0.043 to 0.12 g/s, 0.019 to 0.052 g/s, 0.016 to 0.043 g/s and 0.012 to 0.033 g/s for C60, xenon, krypton and argon, respectively, demonstrating the well known trend of lower propellant consumption of higher I_{sp} rocket engines. Beam currents for the different propellant types ranged between 5.16 to 14.64 A, 12.44 to 34.32 A, 15.83 to 42.9 A and 22.79 to 62.18 A for C60, xenon, krypton and argon,

respectively and emphasize the technological difficulties associated with high thrust inert gas engines. These and other data are summarized in Tables A, 1 through A.4 in the Appendix.

It should be carefully pointed out in the discussion of these results, however, that they are influenced by the initial assumptions made in this model with respect to the maximum span-to-gap ratio, the constant breakdown electric field strength between the grids or beam ion production energies and propellant utilization efficiencies, for example. Changes introduced to these assumptions, whether motivated by improved grid technology, updated C60 engine data or replacing some of the simplifying assumptions in the analysis, may all impact the obtained results.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate performance characteristics of large scale C60 ion engines for potential use on SEI-type missions when compared with similar sized inert gas thrusters. Such an attempt may appear premature regarding the identified early development status of C60 ion engine technology. However, considering the important role propulsion will play in SEI-type mission scenarios, dramatically impacting flight time, spacecraft mass and mission cost, an early investigation of this new electric thruster concept appeared justified, in particular when taking into account time required for development of this engine type. Nonetheless, feasibility issues have to be taken into account when interpreting results obtained from this study. Although previous research has indicated that C60 is a very stable molecule during collisions, fragmentation studies under conditions resembling actual ion engine discharge chamber conditions remain to be conducted in greater detail. Another issue of concern in the development of C60 ion engine technology is possible propellant condensation on engine parts and sputtering of engine components by C60 ions also remains to be investigated.

Propellant feed mechanisms for C60 propellant also require closer attention. Heating the entire propellant reservoir as is the case during current engine testing is not practical for long duration ground testing or actual space flight conditions. Two propellant feed concepts have been suggested, although experimental testing will be necessary to examine their feasibility. Finally, the issue of propellant production may be of some future concern if large quantities of propellant were needed. As current experience with xenon availability and cost

have shown⁵⁸, propellant availability may not be a trivial problem, in particular for SEI-type missions requiring large amounts of propellant.

After a review of these feasibility issues and state-of-the-art of C60 engine testing, thruster performance parameters such as thrust, power requirement, thruster efficiency, specific mass, thrust-to-power ratio as well as some technologically interesting parameters such as discharge current, have been calculated using an analytical model with specific impulse being the independent variable. Previously made comparisons of C60 engines with inert gas thrusters for near-earth missions have indicated certain advantages of C60 thrusters over their inert gas counterparts, such as higher thrust and thruster efficiency for a given specific impulse or power level. Although these findings remain unchallenged in this study, potential advantages of C60 ion technology over inert gas engines for SEI-type mission applications are more subtle.

While for near-earth applications a specific impulse range between 1000 and 2000 seconds is preferred in order to keep electric power requirements low while still allowing for substantial propellant mass savings, high SEI-type missions favor higher specific impulse ranges. Therefore, inert gas thrusters may offset some of these efficiency and thrust advantages for C60 engines when operated in a higher specific impulse range. C60 thrusters could achieve specific impulses higher than 3000 seconds only under great difficulties. High beam voltages would be required to accelerate the C60 ion to such high velocities. Since the beam voltage cannot be raised independently from the total accelerating voltage V_T without causing electron impingement on the accelerator grid from the neutralizer discharge, V_T would also have to be raised, resulting in an increased grid gap. Since a larger grid spacing reduces current and thrust density, it would have to be compensated for by larger grid diameters which ultimately would result in large grid diameters for high Isp C60 engines producing comparable thrust levels.

However, high specific impulse values as well as large beam currents required for inert gas thrusters to achieve thrust values as high as with C60 propellant also results in significant problems for inert gas engines. High specific impulses will result in large power requirements and large beam currents will require high discharge currents. The high power requirements increase over a spacecraft mass of a space vehicle propelled by inert gas thrusters.

Although the high thrust-to-power ratio of C60 engines, being roughly 2.5 times the

corresponding value for a xenon thruster of comparable size, leads to much more benign cathode current conditions and significantly reduced power requirements, the lower available specific impulses for C60 engines also necessitate larger propellant masses for a given Δv per mission. For the same, thrust, the required mass flow rate of a C60 thruster is about 2.5 times the mass flow rate for a xenon thruster, while power is reduced by the mentioned factor of 2.5 also. However, since C60 may be stored in solid form, an ingeniously designed C60 propellant feed system may lead to mass savings over an inert gas propulsion system, due to heavy high pressure tankage required for inert gas propellants. It should be noted, however, that further study is necessary to verify this statement.

The results obtained with this model are all clearly tied to the initial assumptions made regarding maximum span-to-gap ratio, constant breakdown electric field strength between the grids, or uncertainties regarding ion beam production energies and propellant mass utilization for C60 engines. It should therefore be noted that this analysis should only be considered as an approximation based on these assumptions and that changes in ion engine technology, such as grid design, improved data sets on C60 engine operation or a more detailed analysis, replacing some of the simplifications made in this model, may affect the obtained results accordingly.

It is recommended that research on this subject continues in the following manner:

1. A mission design study should be initiated, using the data obtained in this study to estimate overall spacecraft masses, power system masses and propellant masses as well as trip times for C60 and inert gas propellants.
2. Experimental testing of C60 engine technology should continue. Feasibility issues of fragmentation, propellant condensation and sputtering remain to be studied in greater detail before it can be determined if C60 ion engine technology is an alternative to inert gas engines. After that, C60 engines should be performance optimized. Results obtained from these tests will have a very important near term impact on US space technology, as they may lead to the development of smaller scale thrusters for near-earth applications.
3. Parallel to the testing of C60 ion engines described in Item 2, work should begin on the development of C60 propellant feed systems. Improvements over the current approach of

heating the entire propellant reservoir are necessary both for long duration ground testing as well as actual space applications. As with the actual ion engine testing itself, test results obtained from these investigations may benefit near term applications of C60 ion engine technology.

4. Finally, as a last step in investigating the applicability of C60 ion engines for large scale electric space missions, the issue of C60 production should be revisited and availability and cost of fullerene propellants have to be reassessed.

None of these items should be viewed independent from the other. Obviously, results from an analysis of required propellant masses for large scale lunar and interplanetary missions have to be viewed critically in terms of propellant availability. Most importantly, experimental testing of engine and feed system technology should be emphasized since only experimental investigations will be able to resolve feasibility issues and provide the data necessary for a further, meaningful study of this concept.

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APPENDIX

Table A.1 through A.4 listed below summarize the data obtained for C₆₀, xenon, krypton and argon propellant, respectively.

Table A. 1: C60 Performance Data

C60.Dat

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	Isp (see)	R	Power (kW)	?s (w)	T (N)	ETA	MASS (kg)	Alpha (kg/kW)	T / P (N/kW)
1	1'00.000	0.200	3.710	10.780	0.470	67.660	18.430	4.950	0.125
2	1250.000	0.200	6.770	15.820	0.780	70.310	24.920	3.670	0.110
3	1300.000	0.200	8.170	17.800	0.910	71.030	27.450	3.360	0.110
4	?350.000	0.200	9.770	19.930	1.060	71.680	30.180	3.090	0.108
5	1400.000	0.200	11.620	22.230	1.220	72.280	33.130	2.850	0.105
6	7450.000	0.200	13.750	24.690	1.410	72.830	36.300	2.640	0.102
7	1500.000	0.200	16.180	30.580	1.610	73.300	39.700	2.450	0.100
8	1557.000	0.200	19.350	30.570	1.870	73.840	43.900	2.270	0.097
9	1600.000	0.210	20.330	30.570	1.920	74.190	43.900	2.160	0.094
10	1800.000	0.270	25.230	30.570	2.160	75.570	43.900	1.740	0.085
11	1900.000	0.300	27.940	30.570	2.280	76.110	43.900	1.570	0.081
12	2000.000	0.330	30.760	30.570	2.400	76.580	43.900	1.430	0.078
13	2200.000	0.400	36.840	30.570	2.640	77.350	43.900	1.190	0.072
14	2400.000	0.480	43.510	30.570	2.880	77.940	43.900	1.000	0.066
15	2585.000	0.550	50.190	30.570	3.100	78.380	43.900	0.870	0.061
16	2800.000	0.650	58.550	30.570	3.360	78.790	38.750	0.660	0.057
17	3000.000	0.740	66.950	30.570	3.600	79.090	38.750	0.580	0.054
18	3200.000	0.840	75.940	30.570	3.840	79.350	38.750	0.510	0.051
19	3300.000	0.900	80.650	30.570	3.960	79.450	38.750	0.480	0.049
	TS (K)	mdot (g/s)	ID (A)	IB (A)	lg (mm)	DG (cm)	VB (V)	VT (V)	
1	456.000	0.043	19.920	5.160	1.000	50.000	599.000	2994.000	
2	453.000	0.063	29.230	7.580	1.300	64.400	773.000	3866.000	
3	452.000	0.071	32.880	8.520	1.400	69.700	836.000	4181.000	
4	451.000	0.080	36.820	9.550	1.500	75.170	902.000	4510.000	
5	449.000	0.089	41.060	0.650	1.600	80.800	969.850	4849.000	
6	448.000	0.099	45.620	1.830	1.700	86.700	1040.000	5202.000	
7	447.000	0.109	50.510	3.090	1.900	92.800	1113.000	5567.000	
8	445.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	?200.000	5998.000	
9	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	1267.000	6000.000	
10	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	1603.000	6000.000	
11	442.090	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	1786.000	6000.000	
12	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	1979.000	6000.000	
13	442.900	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	2395.000	6000.000	
14	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	2850.000	6000.000	
15	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	3307.000	6000.000	
16	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	3879.000	6000.000	
17	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	4453.000	6000.000	
18	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	5067.000	6000.000	
19	442.000	0.120	56.480	4.640	2.000	100.000	5389.000	6000.000	

Table A.2: Xenon Performance Data

Xenon.Dat

Tue, Sep 7, 1993 12:00 AM

	Isp (See)	R	Power (kW)	PS (kW)	T (N)	ETA	MASS (kg)	A'pha (kg/kW)	T / P (N/kW)
1	2600.000	0.200	9.700	0.000	0.480	63.520	18.830	1.940	0.050
2	2800.000	0.200	13.630	0.000	0.650	65.490	22.390	1.640	0.048
3	3000.000	0.200	18.760	0.000	0.860	67.170	26.480	1.410	0.046
4	3200.000	0.200	25.360	0.000	1.110	68.600	31.130	1.230	0.044
5	3400.000	0.200	33.730	0.000	1.410	69.840	36.430	1.080	0.042
6	3647.000	0.200	47.020	0.000	1.870	71.150	43.930	0.930	0.040
7	3800.000	0.217	50.550	0.000	1.950	71.850	43.910	0.870	0.038
8	4200.000	0.265	60.460	0.000	2.150	73.390	43.910	0.730	0.036
9	4600.000	0.318	71.370	0.000	2.360	74.580	43.910	0.620	0.033
10	5000.000	0.376	83.260	0.000	2.560	75.000	43.910	0.530	0.031
11	5400.000	0.439	96.140	0.000	2.770	76.290	43.910	0.460	0.029
12	5800.000	0.506	110.010	0.000	2.970	76.920	43.910	0.400	0.027
13	6050.000	0.550	119.190	0.000	3.100	77.250	38.750	0.320	0.026
14	6200.000	0.578	124.880	0.000	3.180	77.430	38.750	0.310	0.025
15	6600.000	0.655	140.740	0.000	3.380	77.860	38.750	0.280	0.024
16	7200.000	0.780	166.380	0.000	3.690	78.370	38.750	0.230	0.022
4 ₇	7600.000	0.870	184.710	0.000	3.900	78.660	38.750	0.210	0.021
18	7740.000	0.900	191.360	0.000	3.970	78.740	38.750	0.200	0.021
	TS (K)	mdot (g/s)	ID (A)	IB (A)	ig (mm)	Dg (cm)	VB (v)	VT (V)	
1	624.000	0.019	64.250	12.440	1.020	50.850	610.000	3050.000	
2	622.000	0.024	80.240	15.530	1.170	58.970	707.000	3537.000	
3	619.000	0.029	98.700	19.100	1.350	67.690	812.130	4060.000	
4	617.000	0.035	119.780	23.180	1.540	77.020	924.020	5216.000	
5	613.000	0.042	143.670	27.810	1.730	86.950	1043.100	6001.000	
6	609.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	1200.000	6000.000	
7	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	1303.000	6000.000	
8	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	1519.800	6000.000	
9	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	1909.400	6000.000	
10	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	2255.900	6000.000	
11	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	2631.300	6000.000	
4 ₂	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	3035.600	6000.000	
13	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	3302.900	6000.000	
14	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	3468.700	6000.000	
15	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	3931.000	6000.000	
16	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	4678.000	6000.000	
17	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	5212.000	6000.000	
18	605.000	0.052	177.320	34.320	2.000	100.000	5406.000	6000.000	

Table A.3: Krypton Performance Data

Krypton.Dat

Mon, Sep 6, 1993 11:57 PM

	Isp (see)	R	Power (kW)	PS (kW)	T (N)	ETA	MASS (kg)	Alpha(kg/kW)	T/? (N/kW)
1	3200.000	0.200	12.450	0.000	0.490	62.260	19.070	1.530	0.040
2	3600.000	0.200	21.430	0.000	0.790	65.210	21.430	1.180	0.037
3	4000.000	0.200	35.050	0.000	1.210	67.500	35.050	0.940	0.034
4	4400.000	0.200	54.980	0.000	1.770	69.320		0.770	0.032
5	4463.000	0.200	58.820	0.000	1.870	69.560	43.910	0.750	0.032
6	4800.000	0.230	66.830	0.000	2.100	70.750	43.910	0.660	0.030
7	5200.000	0.270	77.170	0.000	2.180	71.910	43.910	0.570	0.028
8	5600.000	0.310	88.340	0.000	2.340	72.860	43.910	0.500	0.027
9	6200.000	0.390	106.630	0.000	2.590	73.990	43.910	0.410	0.024
10	6600.000	0.440	119.860	0.000	2.760	74.580	43.910	0.370	0.023
11	7000.000	0.490	133.920	0.000	2.930	75.100	43.910	0.330	0.022
12	7400.000	0.550	148.810	0.000	3.100	75.530	43.910	0.300	0.021
13	8000.000	0.640	172.690	0.000	3.350	76.070	38.750	0.220	0.019
14	8500.000	0.720	194.010	0.000	3.560	76.430	38.750	0.200	0.018
15	9000.000	0.810	216.620	0.000	3.770	76.740	38.750	0.190	0.017
16	9470.000	0.900	239.050	0.000	3.960	77.000	38.750	0.160	0.016
	TS (K)	m-dot (g/s)	ID (A)	IB (A)	lg (mm)	Dg (cm)	VB (V)	VT (V)	
1	659.000	0.016	69.790	15.830	1.020	51.400	617.000	3084.000	
2	656.000	0.022	99.370	22.530	1.300	65.100	781.000	3904.000	
3	651.000	0.031	136.310	30.910	1.600	80.340	964.000	4819.000	
4	645.000	0.041	181.420	41.150	1.900	97.200	1166.000	5831.000	
5	644.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	1200.000	6000.000	
6	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	1388.000	6000.000	
7	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	1629.000	6000.000	
8	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	1889.000	6000.000	
9	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	2316.000	6000.000	
10	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	2624.000	6000.000	
11	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	2951.000	6000.000	
12	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	3298.000	6000.000	
13	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	3855.000	6000.000	
14	640.030	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	4352.000	6000.000	
15	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	4879.000	6000.000	
16	640.000	0.043	189.330	42.900	2.000	100.000	5402.000	6000.000	

Table A.4: Argon Performance Data

Argon.Dat

Mon, Sep 6, 1993 11:56 PM

	Isp (see)	R	Power (kW)	?s (kW)	T (N)	ETA	MASS (kg)	Alpha(kg/kW)	T/P (N/kW)
1	4100.000	0.200	17.880	0.000	0.490	55.140	18.990	1.050	0.027
2	4500.000	0.200	27.430	0.000	0.710	57.240	23.640	0.860	0.026
3	5000.000	0.200	44.800	0.000	1.080	59.350	30.690	0.690	0.024
4	5500.000	0.200	70.190	0.000	1.590	61.010	39.350	0.560	0.023
5	5729.000	0.200	85.170	0.000	1.870	61.660	43.910	0.520	0.022
6	6000.000	0.220	92.400	0.000	1.960	62.340	43.910	0.480	0.021
7	6500.000	0.260	106.600	0.000	2.120	63.410	43.910	0.410	0.020
8	7000.000	0.300	121.940	0.000	2.280	64.290	43.910	0.360	0.019
9	7500.000	0.340	138.420	0.000	2.450	65.020	43.910	0.320	0.018
10	8000.000	0.390	156.040	0.000	2.610	65.630	43.910	0.280	0.016
11	8500.000	0.440	174.790	0.000	2.770	66.130	43.910	0.250	0.016
12	9000.000	0.490	194.680	0.000	2.940	66.570	43.910	0.230	0.015
13	9500.000	0.550	215.700	0.000	3.100	66.950	43.910	0.200	0.014
14	10000.000	0.610	237.860	0.000	3.260	67.270	38.750	0.160	0.014
15	10500.000	0.670	267.160	0.000	3.430	67.550	38.750	0.150	0.013
16	11000.000	0.740	285.590	0.000	3.590	67.790	38.750	0.140	0.013
17	11500.000	0.810	311.160	0.000	3.750	68.000	38.750	0.120	0.012
18	12000.000	0.880	337.870	0.000	3.910	68.190	38.750	0.110	0.011
19	12100.000	0.900	346.100	0.000	3.960	68.250	38.750	0.110	0.011

	TS (K)	mdot (g/s)	ID (A)	IB (A)	lg (mm)	Dg (cm)	VB (V)	VT (V)
1	723.500	0.012	97.110	22.790	1.020	51.200	614.000	3072.000
2	720.670	0.016	128.400	30.130	1.200	61.700	740.000	3701.000
3	715.700	0.022	176.130	41.340	1.500	76.200	914.000	4569.000
4	709.690	0.029	234.430	55.020	1.800	92.100	1105.000	5529.000
5	706.720	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	1200.000	6000.000
6	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	1316.000	6000.000
7	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	1544.000	6000.000
8	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	1791.000	6000.000
9	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	2056.000	6000.000
10	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	2339.000	6000.000
11	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	2641.000	6000.000
12	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	2960.000	6000.000
13	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	3299.000	6000.000
14	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	3655.000	6000.000
15	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	4030.000	6000.000
16	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	4423.000	6000.000
17	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	4834.000	6000.000
18	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	5264.000	6000.000
19	702.230	0.033	264.950	62.180	2.000	100.000	5396.000	6000.000

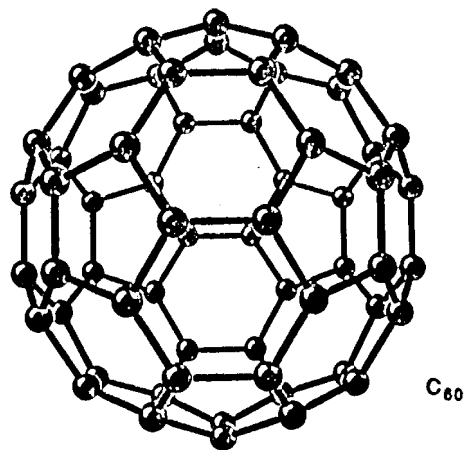


Fig 1

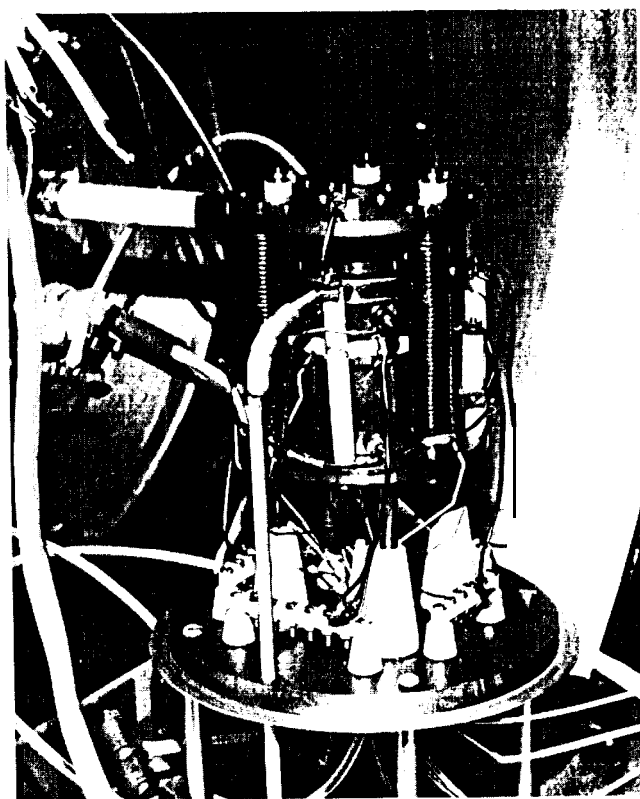
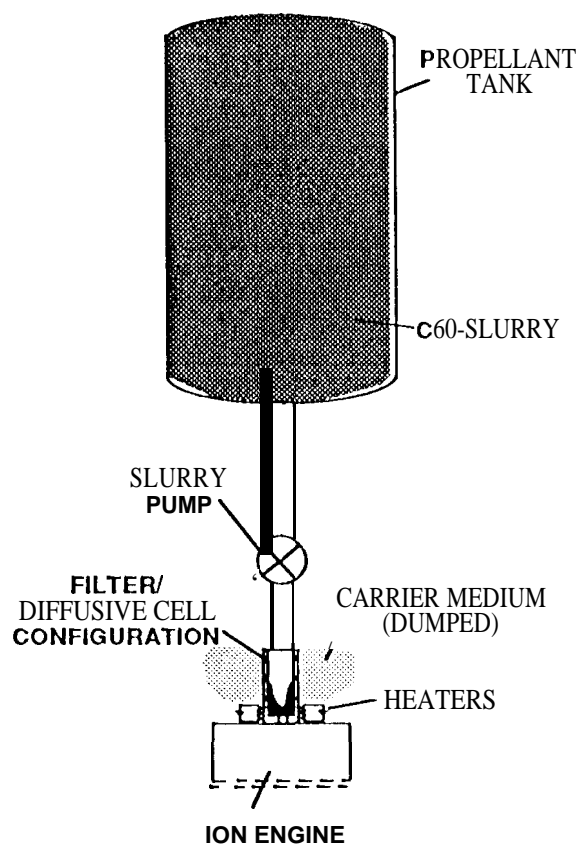


Fig 2



-1 if 3

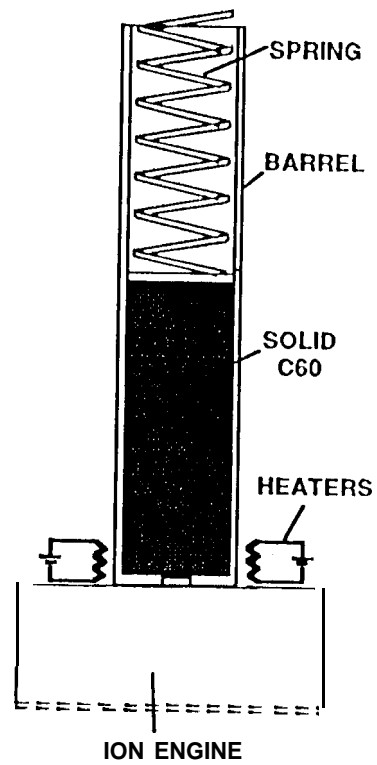


Fig. 4.

Fig 5

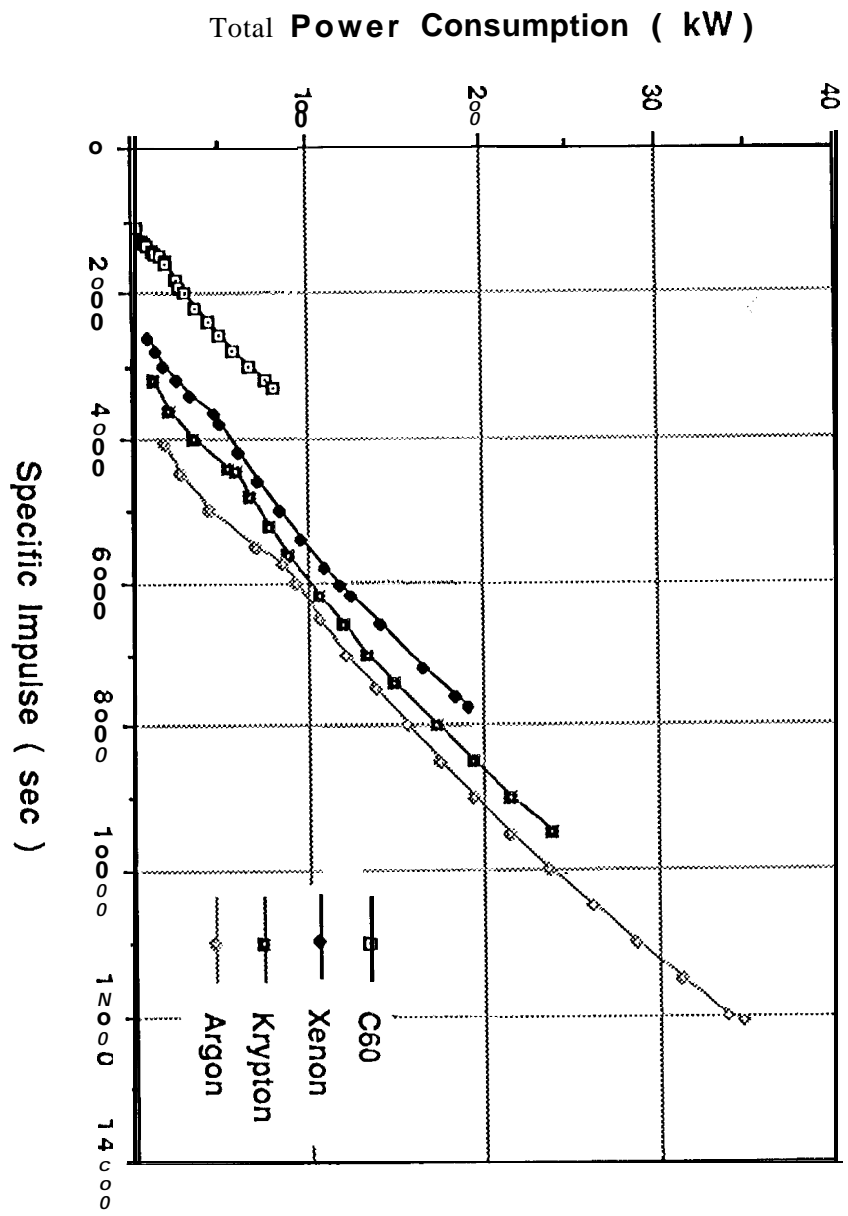


Fig. 5

Fig. 6

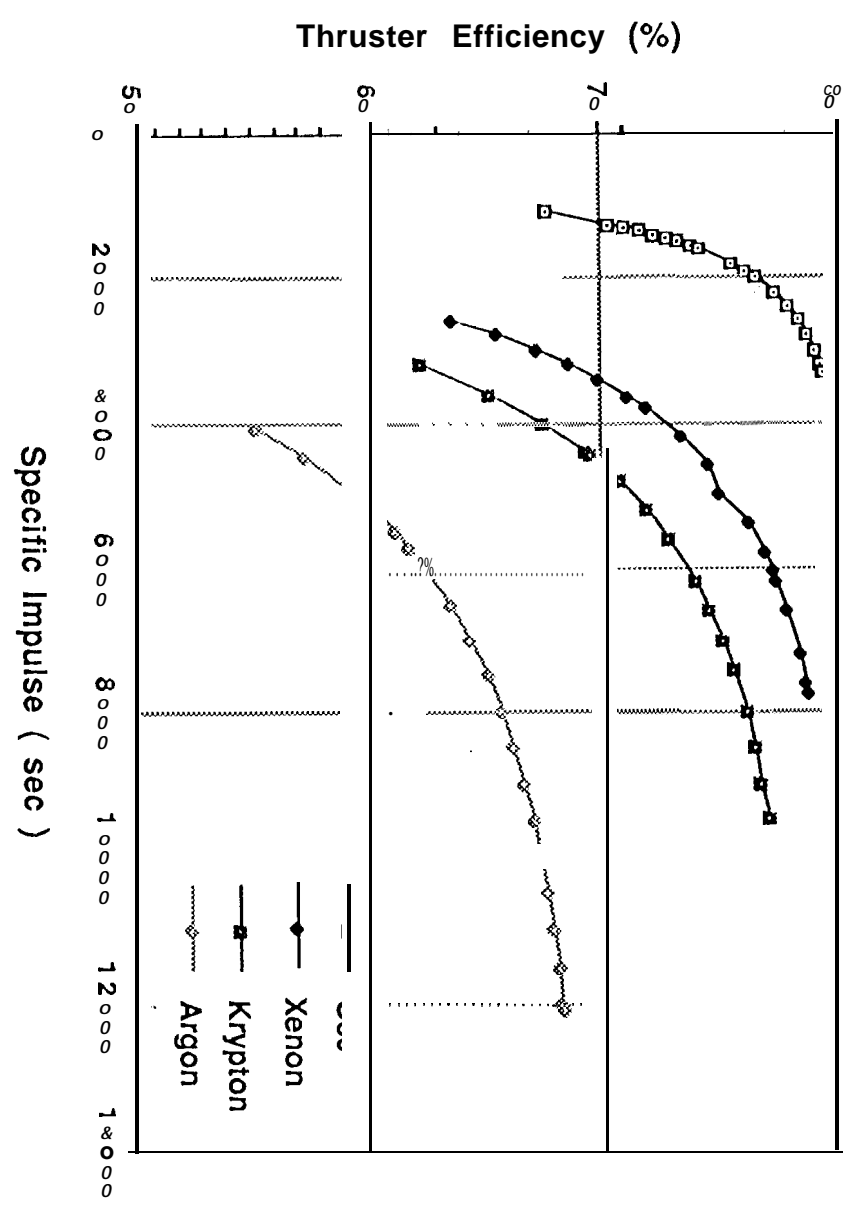


Fig. 6

Fig. 7

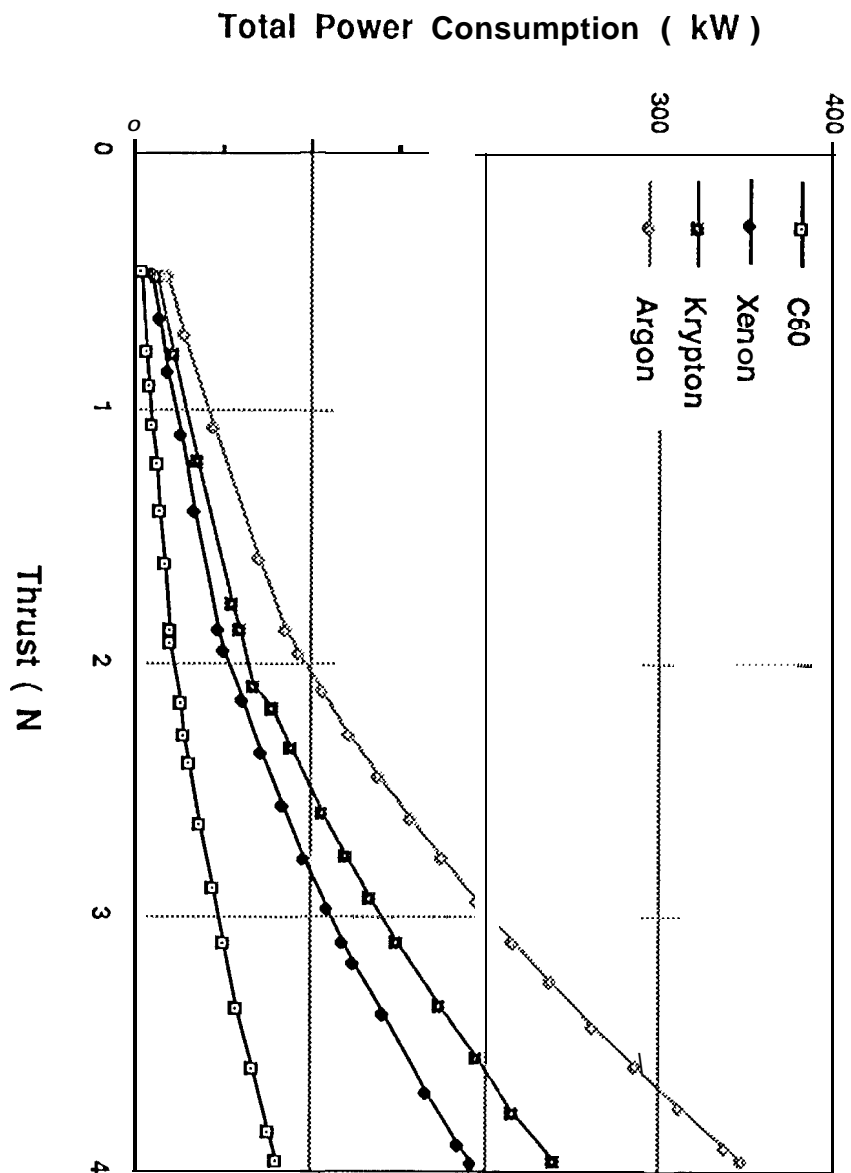


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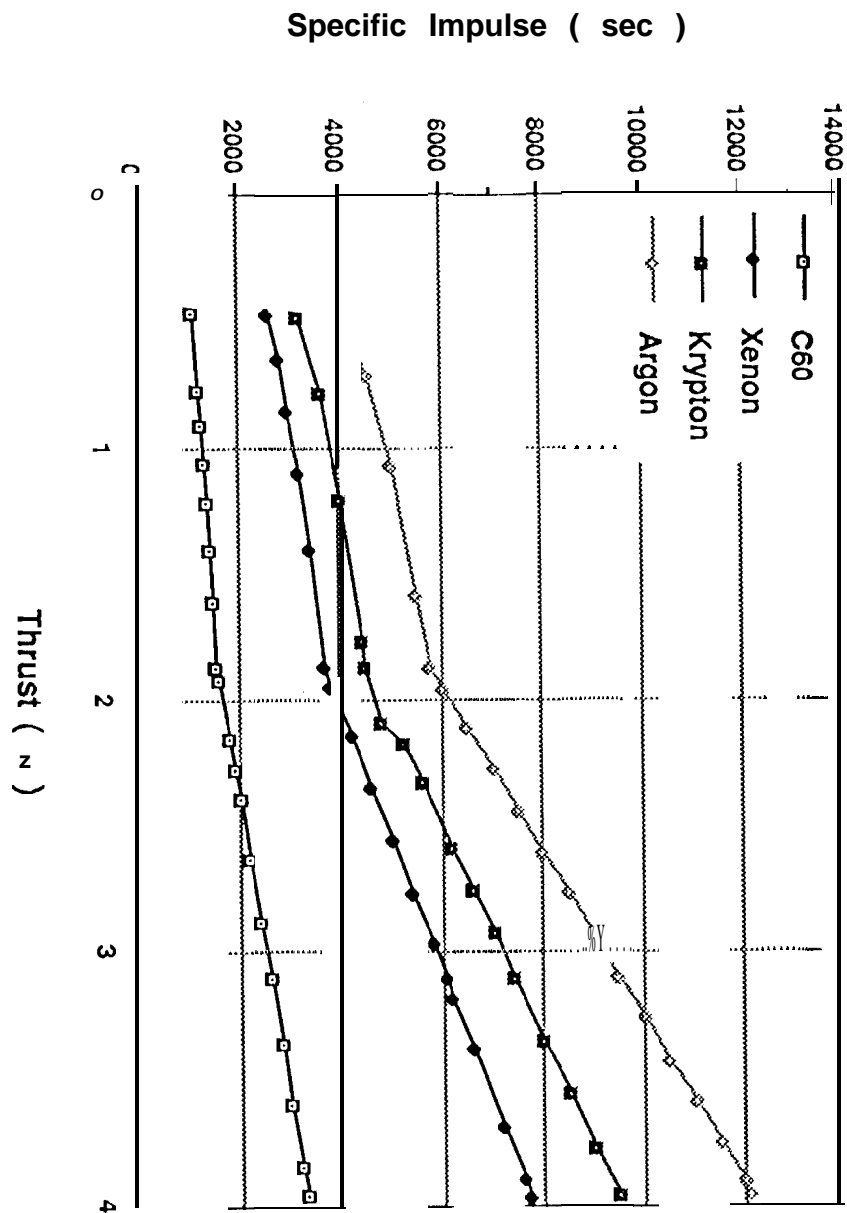
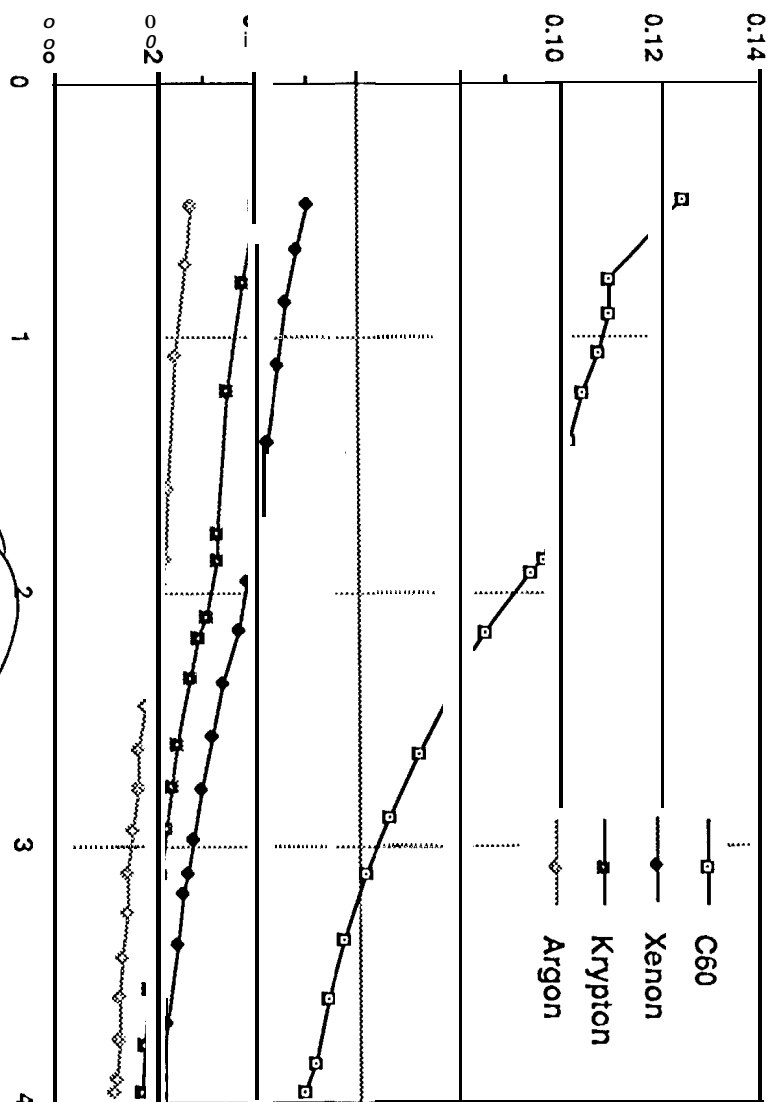


Fig. 8

Thrust-to-Power Ratio (N/kW)



Thrust (N)
 should plot
 T/P vs Isp

Fig. 9

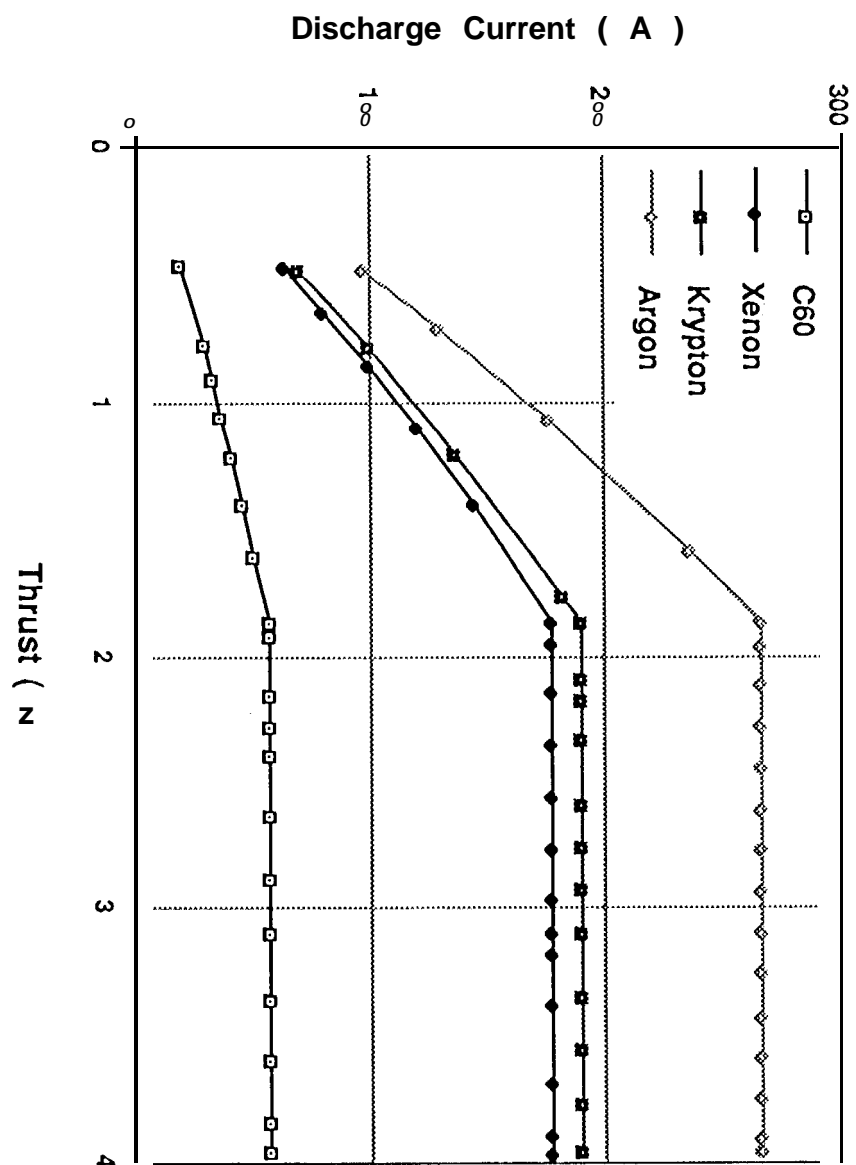


Fig. 10

Fig. 10

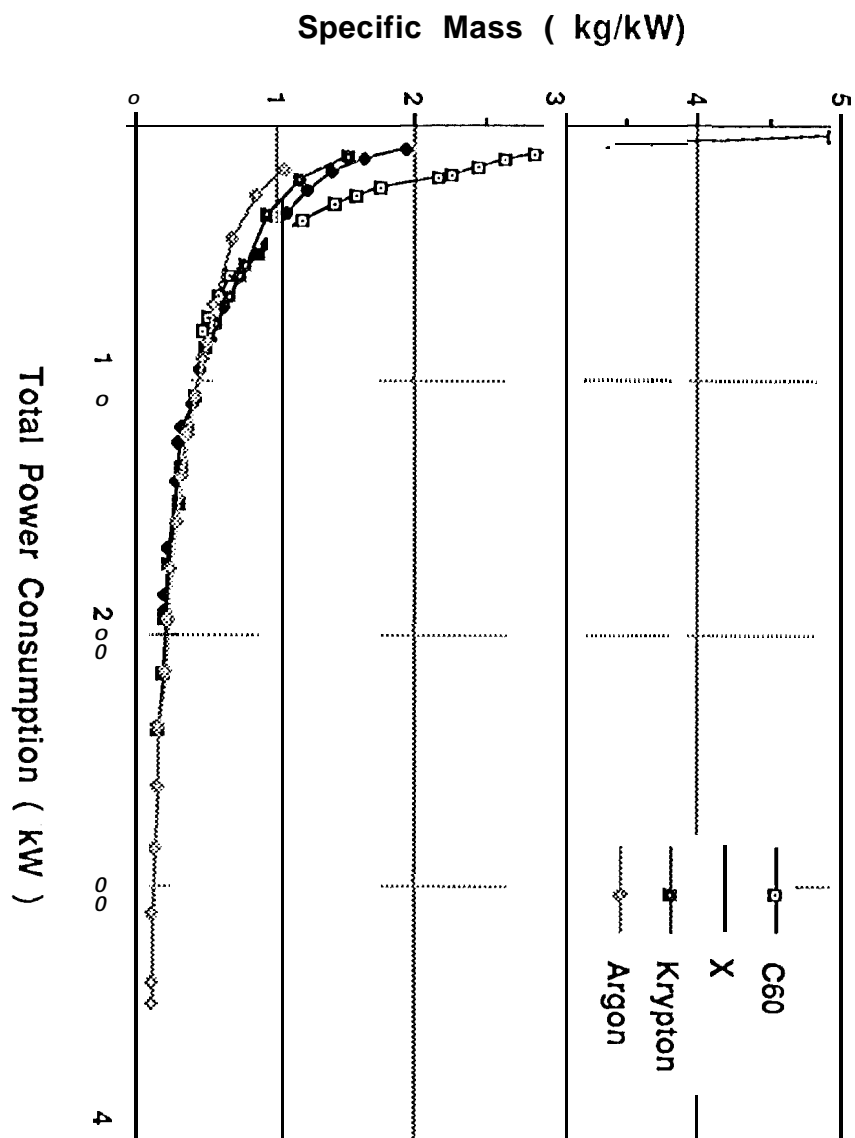


Fig. 11

Fig. 12

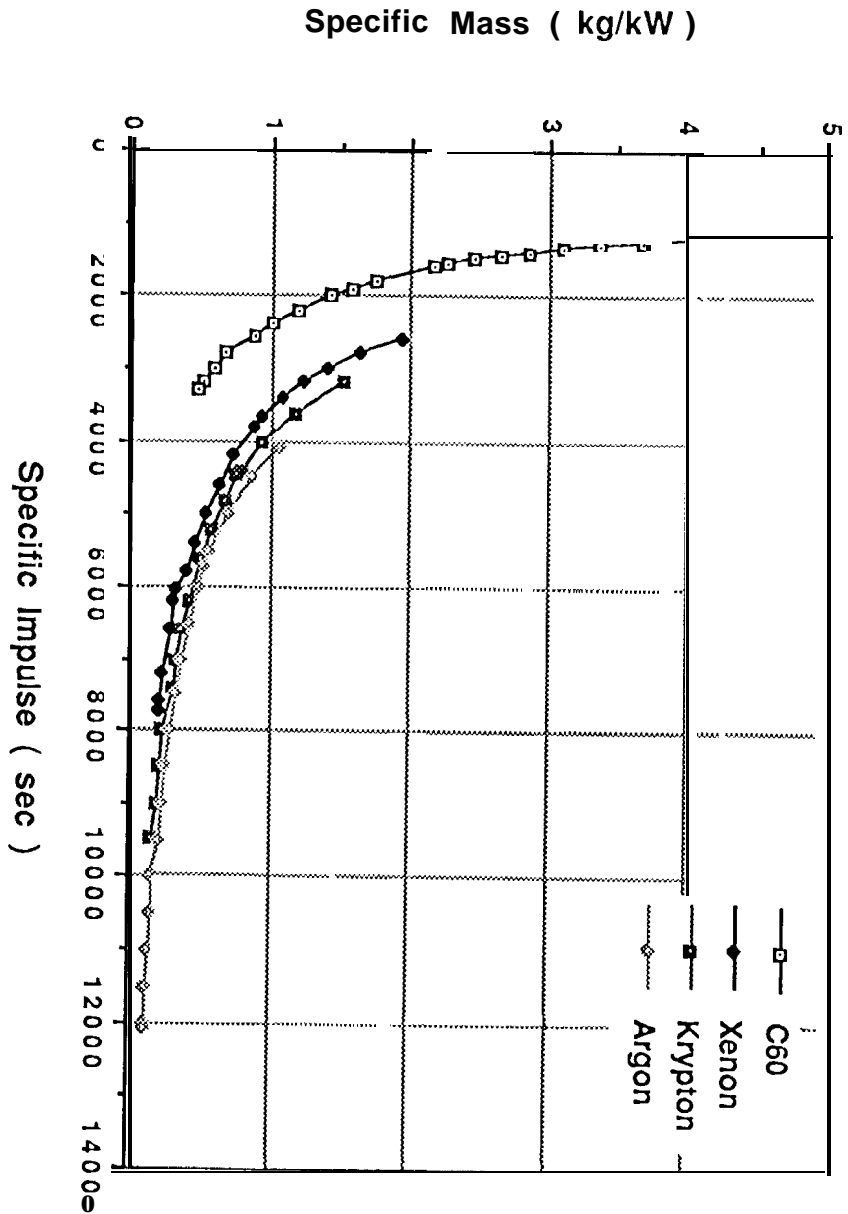


Fig. 12